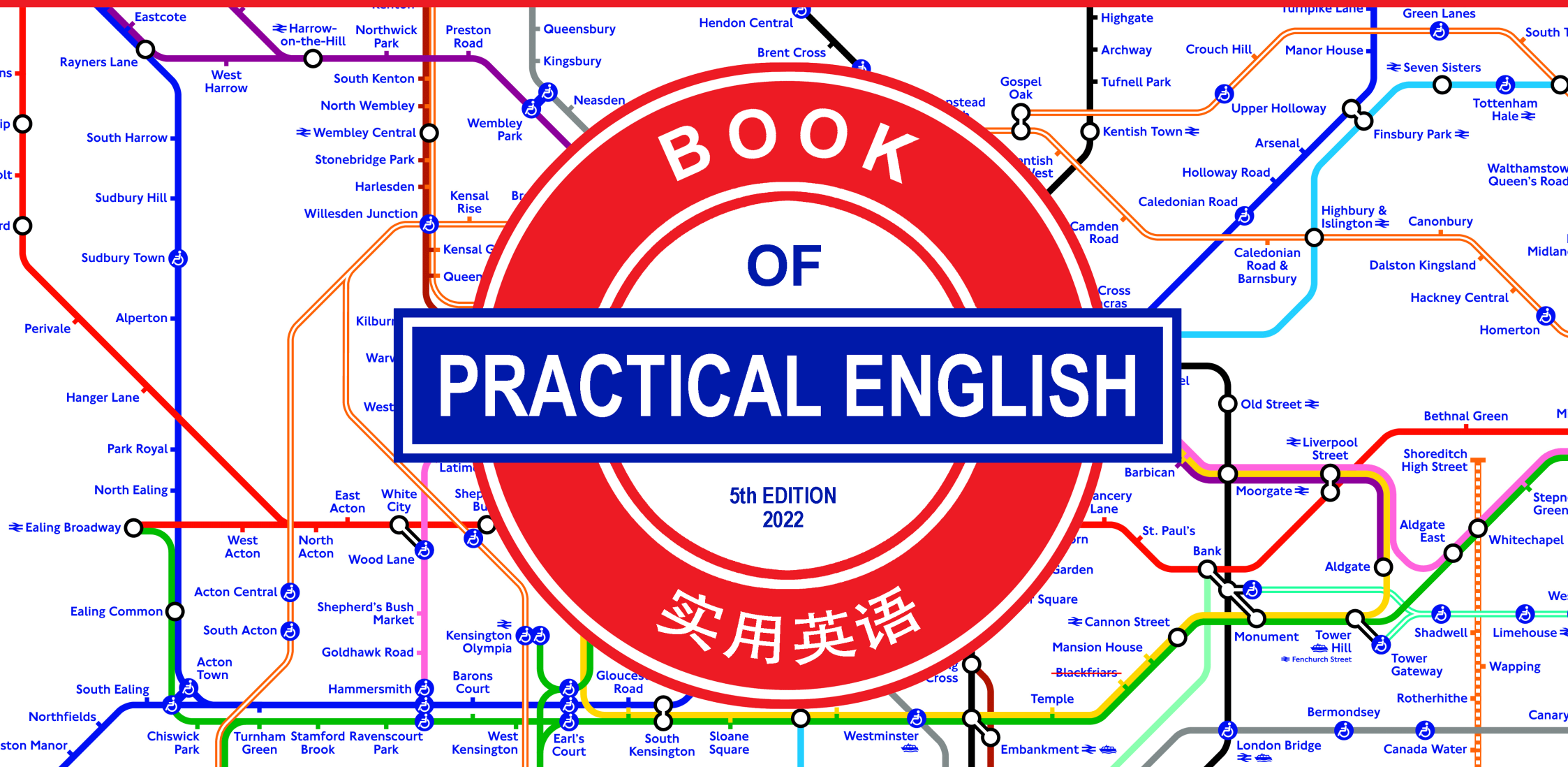


LORD HENFIELD'S



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LORD HENFIELD'S

HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

**A POWERFUL MANUAL AND COMPENDIUM
FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS AND STUDENTS**

WITH OVER 800 ILLUSTRATIONS, DIAGRAMS, TABLES AND LISTS, CAREFULLY
ARRANGEND VOCABULARY AND EXPLANATIONS. EDITED AND PUBLISHED BY LORD HENFIELD.
ALL CHINESE PARTS EDITED BY AURELIA KONING.



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**IN TOKEN OF MY ADMIRATION FOR
HER UNCONDITIONAL LOVE AND SUPPORT
THIS BOOK IS INSCRIBED TO MY BELOVED MOTHER**

THIS WORK IS WRITTEN IN ACCORDANCE TO THE
WRITING RULES OF BRITISH INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH.
MOST GRAMMAR TERMS ARE PARTICULARLY WRITTEN WITH
CAPITAL LETTERS (Noun, Verb, etc.) IN ORDER TO UNDERLINE THEIR SIGNIFICANCE.

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**LORD HENFIELD'S
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A Powerful Manual And Compendium
For English Teachers And Students.

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with over 7,500 ASIAN CHARACTERS
in circa 33,000 PARAGRAPHS
in circa 70,000 LINES, on 876 PAGES
Latest Update: 2024-07-21

FIFTH REVISED EDITION
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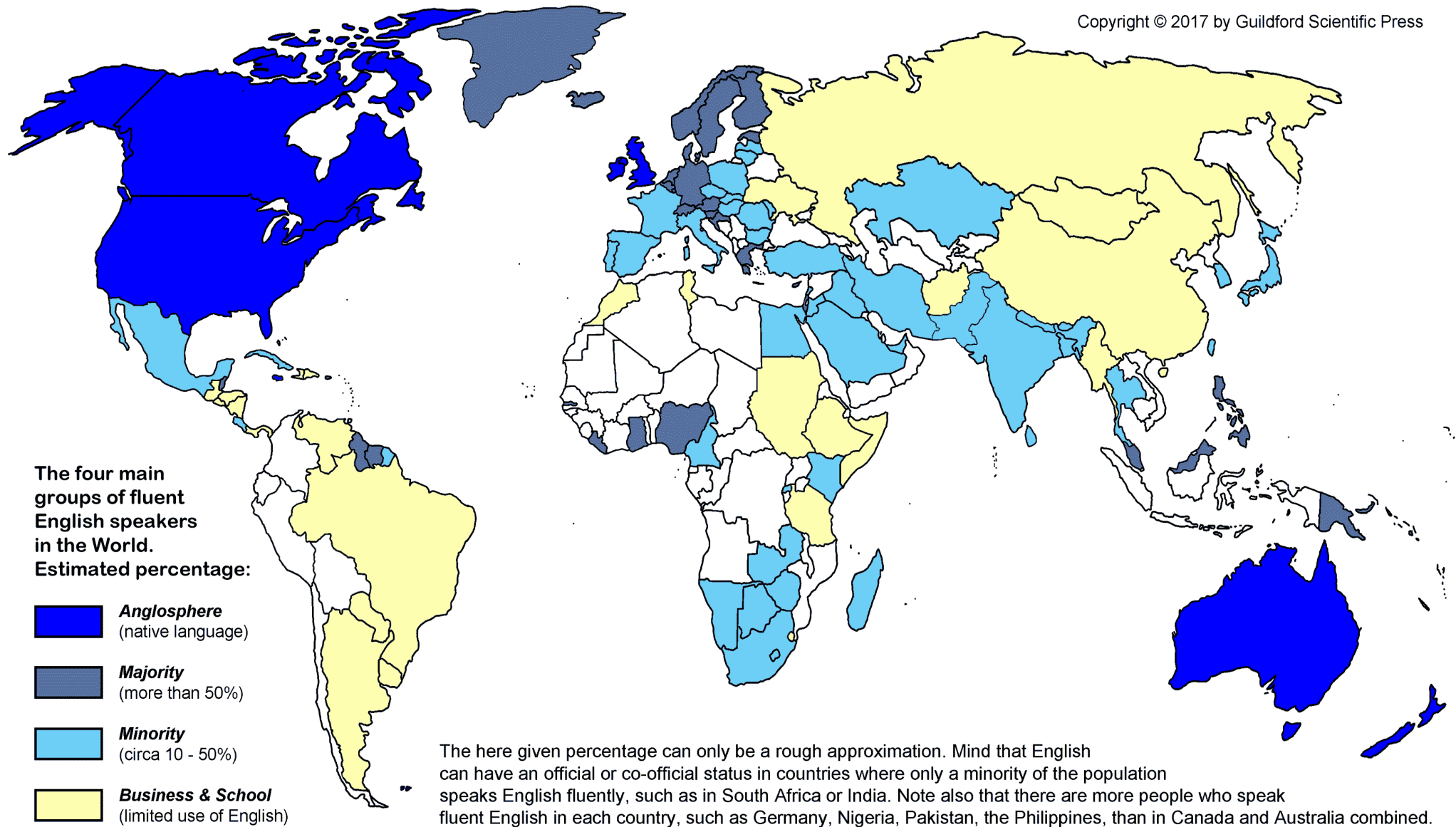
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THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING WORLD BY FLUENCY

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LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Lord Henfield is an English scholar and educator who specialises in linguistics (mainly of Romance and Germanic languages), history and archaeology focussing on ancient technology, architecture, early mass production, industrialisation, environment, scripture, etc., by exploring museums and archives for ancient publications to find evidence that can explain in what ways and why civilisations interact with one another and what consequences it has for us.

His other fields of interest are astronomy, planetology, space exploration, educational psychology and social science. He has worked as teacher, editor and translator for more than 40 years. Extended studies in archaeology have brought him to excavation sites and libraries in various countries. He published several articles on archaeology and history. In 2015 he has published the *Book of Practical English* in which he introduces teaching methods that are tailor-made for learners whose native language is Mandarin Chinese or any other language of the various Sino-Tibetan language group.

Henfield uses a system that allows students to get a bird's-eye view of the entire structure of one particular grammar feature. This method enables learners, whose native language has no Indo-European background (as Chinese, Tibetan or Thai for instance), to easily grasp the mainly dualistic structure of English grammar forms in a comprehensible way..

The grammatical structure of Chinese languages differ from English and other Indo-European languages so fundamentally that typical features such as verb tenses, singular-plural distinction, phrasal verbs, participles, conditionals, subjunctives, irregular verb forms, irregular plural forms of nouns, and lots of other attributes are totally alien to native speakers of any Sino-Tibetan language and therefore beyond comprehension without a special teaching and training method.

The Dualistic Teaching System has been invented and developed by Lord Henfield. It successfully deals with a variety of grammar systems and practical applications that interact with one another. Seemingly complicated forms, with which all kinds of English students struggle for years, can be understood in a few minutes when examples are presented in a tidy manner that clearly shows all forms. Henfield's dualistic teaching method touches almost all aspects of language teaching. Its principles are very effective because they are simple. Basically, they enhance a student's awareness, thinking and approach to solve learning problems easily right from the start by making the student actively think: "When I can say things in one way, then I may be able to say the same thing in another way too".

Henfield works with schools, universities international companies, and education authorities, instructing teachers and students. Henfield's "Handbook of Practical English" gives you understandable support. Henfield says: *"Any learner can learn to speak English almost immediately if the learner gets features and structures to learn which are relevant and if the related explanations have common sense. If we use relevant material that the learner actually needs, and if we present words and grammar in a logical context, for example by showing them in clusters that appear in almost every expression and sentence, then we can make a learner use the relatively small BASIC English vocabulary of 850 words in an instant and with ease"*.

Lord Henfield's Handbook of Practical English shows you all details you need to know. The skill of using English has become crucial. It decides whether you will have success in your career. English is the very first language of the world that underwent the process of globalisation already many hundred years ago since it is composed of several different languages. As English is quite easy to learn, it is the ideal World language to lead us into the future".

Aurelia Koning, 2011

*This Handbook is Dedicated to the People of China
And to the Family of English-Speaking Nations*

*This book shows you how impressive the English Tongue can be.
Only facts are shown here in this handbook.*

*The book has been designed in a comfortable-to-use landscape or
wide-screen format which gives you an entire overview on tables
and illustrations. Although I describe in this book lots of essential
rules and features of the English language to you, I should like to
animate you to use English freely. Just obey the 32 Basic Rules of
Grammar and Usage, and the 32 Verb Tenses. Use your common
sense and your imaginative creativity in order to make English
your very own language. Your efforts will be rewarded!*

*It is not the existence of rules but their absence that makes
English the freest and strongest language in the world!*

Lord Henfield

FOREWORD

"Words and their grammar are important. If you cannot say what you mean, you will never mean what you say!"

You may ask "Why do we need this English-language book? The bookshops are overfilled with all kinds of English-books already!" Well, I could not find any book that deals with the difficulties of teachers and students properly. So I decided to make my own English-book. I have designed it as a handbook in a practical widescreen format and it is meant as a helpful tool for teachers and students alike. With circa 400,000 words in 70,000 lines, it is probably the largest English reference book of its kind in China. It contains almost every significant aspect and lots of useful background information.

This book can help English teachers who work in China. The book will be of great value for everyone who have a strong habit to study on their own and wish to be able to communicate after a considerably short time of learning. The contents of this handbook are ideal for all those who cannot afford to waste time and money. To show in an understandable way *"How to learn the English language very quickly"*, and *"what has to be learnt"*, that is the main goal of this book. With the publication of this handbook, I follow the expressed wishes of my students and colleagues, who want to know more about the amazingly *simple grammatical principles* and useful *learning tricks* with which I usually catch the students' attention already in their first English lesson. Especially the less gifted students win new confidence after years of failure, when they realise that they can learn seemingly complicated grammar features *through a simple eye-opening*

experience within a few minutes. Grammar loses its horrors, when presented in an *entire overview* and with the right explanations.

Creating this book imposed several difficulties on me. I did not just unquestioned write what other authors copy from earlier writers. Lots of patterns and grammar rules remain a mystery to many students and teachers, partly because they are badly explained, because some of them are wrong, and because grammar features are given to learners in tiny titbits, suggesting that learners are not capable to swallow the entire feature of a system in one bite. I tell you: This is definitely a wrong assumption that gives our learners no credit at all!

Even my youngest learners, for example, understand the English Verb tense system very well when they learn the entire system in a handful of logical steps that enables them to use the tenses in an instant. Example of the first stage: The **Simple tenses** have to be learnt in only "one package": The *Present tense* (I drive or I do drive) and *Past tense* (I drove or I did drive) build the "Present-Past **Pair**"; the *Future tense* (I will drive) and the *Future tense in the Past* (I would drive) build the same sort of "Present-Past **Pair**". All other tense forms should be learnt in the same way as they follow this pattern (By the way, **did** is a roundabout expression to avoid irregular Past forms in an effective way to animate learners to speak without long thinking!)

A certain thing that hampers the learner's efforts gravely is the **names** we teachers give **grammar features**. Here a typical example from the Verb grammar. Teachers try to explain Verb tenses by using **useless names** such as Future I or Future II, Conditional I or Conditional II, or

the "Present Conditional" which is the most ridiculous name because it is no "*Present* tense" at all! Deliberately, I avoid any of those names, particularly when explaining the most complex grammar part in English: the Verb. **Naming Verb tenses logically** is very important, because it prevents learners from getting confused. Always name the **Aspect(s)** first, then the time: ***Perfect Continuous Past tense***.

I was confronted with another question: "What must be avoided in this book?" Answer: Anything that has no practical value and does not really enhance the learner's skill to use English. Anything that is not clear and comprehensible. So I avoided "scientific language" when ever this was possible. I used special words only when I could not avoid them. I did not use abbreviations or other short forms because they are obstacles to fluent reading and they are tiresome. I did not use many footnotes but I explained extra features right on the spot. This brought to me then the most important question "What must be put in this book?" Here I had to decide whether to address experts or just everybody who is interested in English. I decided for everybody. Consequently, I focussed on topics of interest and anything that might help learners to improve their skills. Therefore I have mentioned difficult features for several times and in different arrangements. I included a glossary of linguistics and grammar which explains to you some difficult words and features (in English, Chinese and Pinyin).

Learning a new language successfully and quickly requires a considerable degree of will. Learning a new language has not only to do with grammar, structure and vocabulary. The origin, history and basic meaning of words, which are rarely mentioned at school, catch

great interest, because they do not only make vocabulary easily understandable, but also show geographical, historical and cultural facts in a *logical context*. Students are especially excited when they see that they can use the contents of my lessons in daily life. They gain useful skills and general knowledge!

Learning a language is commonly subdivided into four distinguished tasks: The **input** tasks ***Listening*** and ***Reading***, and the **output** tasks ***Speaking*** and ***Writing***. It is useful to understand the difference between *Listening* and *Reading* in contrast to *Speaking* and *Writing*. English has a very rich vocabulary. Good dictionaries contain over 250,000 words. This is not encouraging for someone who is learning English as a foreign language. To operate extensive reading without a dictionary, we need a relatively large vocabulary of about 20,000 words and *metaphors*. We also need to be familiar with a large number of grammatical *peculiarities*, so that we may know them if they have any meaning. We can lose a lot of time in learning, when we do not know what these differences mean, and when we work under the assumption that learning to understand a new language and express ourselves in it is the same. Learning to **speak English is definitively easier than to understand it!**

In order to have a *decent conversation*, a very small number of words is sufficient. In the early 20th century, the British linguist Charles Kay Ogden from the University of Cambridge analysed how English native speakers use their language. He came to the astonishing conclusion that most people (even highly educated people) use hardly more than 1,000 words in any *daily conversation*. He was baffled when he found

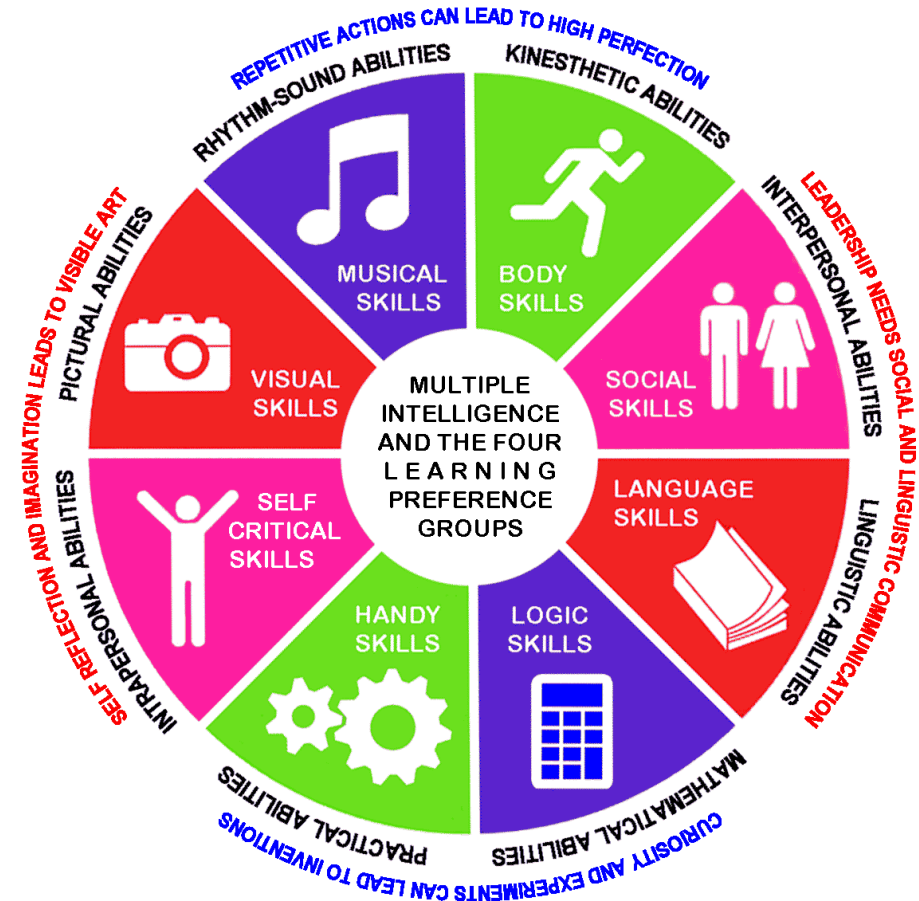
out how they do it. Most English speakers use about **30 Basic Verbs** of which they frequently form only so-called “**Verbal Phrases**”, combinations of a Verb with a Direction Word, an Adverb or a Noun.

Teaching according to preference, ability, and skill

Professional education has to do with understanding the needs of a learner and recognising the student's individual way of learning. This is an easy task. When the teacher understands what type of learner the student is, the teacher can use this individual trait to make the student learn two or three times faster than before.

It is well known for a long time that any human has a distinct way to learn new things. This way is called "learning preference". In order to understand what is behind learning abilities and preferences, the teacher has to know in what way a student learns. Let us examine this concept in detail. You might have noticed the following phenomenon yourself: There is a student who has good musical skills - that student might also be quicker in understanding mathematical tasks. Why is that? Reason: musical harmony is based on mathematics, not on feelings! You might also know a student who hates mathematics but is incredibly good at language skills and has also skills in art or good knowledge in subjects such as geography and history. So when we can find out in what way a student learns best, then we can use this learning preference to increase speed, efficiency, and long-lasting results in learning English or any other subject. A human can learn fast in many ways but there are 8 preferred ways of learning building 4 groups of skills or ability pairs.

Each skill is closely connected to another one on the opposite side but also loosely connected to a neighbouring skill like this:



Ask yourself: *In which way do I learn best?* - by pictures? by listening to audio examples? by talking? by drawing or writing? by singing? by writing words in opposite columns? Do the same with the student!

What features should be taught and learnt?

Although English-learners often know a great number of words and rules, often they cannot take part in any common conversation. Why is that? It is a common misconception that learning a vast amount of words and grammar rules may improve ones English. Being able to learn English well has nothing to do with talent, it merely is a matter of **skill, the right knowledge** and **practice!** Any language can to be learnt in a way that leads to success in a very short time. Mind that any topic **MUST** be **appropriate** for the **age** and **level** of the learner! Teaching and learning, as well as explaining and practising, must go "hand in hand". There are certain techniques and principles with which learners can have good results. They achieve most by:

1. Learning typical English sounds by the **Phonics** systems. Taking **sound recordings** of the learners own English speaking voice and play it for listening until the learners pronunciation is correct. (Mind that you may need equipment of a *language laboratory*.)
2. **Learning first** the **"Operator words"** of **Basic English**. **Combining topics** or features that naturally appear together anyway such as: Verb tense, names of the day, direction words (Two days **ago**, **In** 2 days), number words (One, two, three, etc.)
3. **Learning "en bloc"** such as the Simple Verb tenses of "to have": I **have** (he has), I **had**; I **will have**, I **would have**, and all 4 Simple Tenses of "to be": "**am, is, are; was, were; will be, would be**". Verb tenses always should be learnt "en bloc" of **4 tenses** (Present, Past, Future, Future in the Past) together right from the very first semester because all other tenses follow the **same pattern**. Teaching only one single tense per each semester is the
- most stupid method, quite simply because learners have to learn all 32 Verb tenses as early as possible. And it is a waste of time as learners would not get the feeling that these 4 main tenses belong together. In the end, the learner gets confused and frustrated!
4. **Learning** a certain grammar feature or behaviour of a word in an **entire overview**. For example teach always Adjectives like this: *beautiful, **more** beautiful (than), (the) **most** beautiful*, but also always their **negatives**: ***not** beautiful, **less** beautiful (than), (the) **least** beautiful*; then phrases like *as beautiful as* or *not so beautiful as*; then the Adverb: *beautifully*; the Noun from the Adjective which is *beau, beauty*, then the Verb which is: *make beautiful*. Look up all other words that contain the word "beauty".
5. **Learning** words, phrases, and other expressions always with their **opposites**. Make learners aware: *when there is a positive, there also might be a negative* (up - down; good - not good, bad - not bad, etc.) and *when there is an answer there must be a question!*
6. Focusing on **practical language** such as describing things, appearances and situations properly and in a clear, understandable manner. Learn about clocktime, metric units, geography, measure words and words with which you can describe things of which you do not know their proper name yet.
7. **Learning** cardinal, ordinal, negative, collective, distributive **numbers** and fractions and the **4 Basic Arithmetics**.
8. Using **polite forms** (with "would, should, could, etc.) and focusing on **positive wishes** as well as **negative (not) wishes**.
9. Learning any words and features of the above 8 points **BEFORE the actual lesson unit starts** will help learners to grasp what the coming texts are about. Teachers ought to introduce and explain

- them in a special **feature lesson** (20 – 30 minutes with practice!)
10. Learning the **proper names** as without knowing the names of places or people we cannot understand any contents. Focus on geographical names and common technological terms first. These English names are often international. They must be learnt!
 11. Beginning to become eloquent like a native speaker by putting **stickers** or **tags** (with the English word written on it) **on items at home** such as "cup, tea, sink, water tap, wardrobe, doorframe, lock, coathanger" etc. Speak them. Each time the learner sees that item, more and more they will think of the English word first.
 12. **Finding** the meaning of **words** in a dictionary **on their own**. This gives the learner a feeling for the correct spelling. Giving the learner ready prepared and translated lists of words in order to let them memorise them is almost useless as those collected words have to be learnt without context and common sense.
 13. Remembering this: Learning English is less about learning another language but primarily about gaining knowledge and skill! Begin to gain any kind of knowledge in English first from any book, or for example from **www.wikipedia.org** (in English, not in Chinese!!). On the left side of the screen is displayed a list of other languages. Choose "Simple English" for easy reading.
 14. Practising **building longer sentences** out of very short ones by gradually adding more and more Adjectives or other describing words.
 15. Turning each of these sentences **into negative sentences** with "not", into positive questions, then into negative questions.
 16. Exposing yourself to **the sound of English** as often as you can. For example find the app "podcast addict" in the app-store of your

phone and install it. Here you can download podcasts from every English speaking country. You also can access BBC radio directly online via **www.bbc.co.uk**. Try to start BBC Radio 4. I like it best due to its versatile programmes. You also can download TV shows such as "Downton Abbey" from **Soku, Tudou** or others. These series are better than "movies" because there is more time to talk for the actors. Subtitles are in Chinese AND in English. So you can read what is spoken. Learn simple English songs! Use every opportunity to talk with English-speakers. You always can start a conversation with: "Hallo, how are you doing?" or "Have you been here long?" or "Are you here on holiday?".

What are the Difficulties?

It is no secret that learning a foreign language demands a huge amount of effort. Learning English encloses several significant difficulties.

First problem: English has a **vast range of different words** which is the result of the historical development of our language. English is mainly composed of these four languages: **Germanic** (*Anglo-Saxon*), **Romance** (*Latin*), **Scandinavian** and **French**, where the latter two are only variations of the former two. This fact is the reason why we have several different words with a similar or even the same meaning. No wonder that English has a vocabulary which is more than three times larger than that of Mandarin Chinese.

Second difficulty: English has an **old-fashioned orthography** which

has not seen true reforms for over 500 years, despite the fact that the sound of English has changed considerably ever since. Therefore, a chief obstacle of learning English has been its phonetic irregularity, the frequency with which the same symbols are used to represent different sounds. Following amusing anecdote illustrates it: The word **fish**, as Sir Richard Paget has noted, could be written as **ghoti** when we take the f-sound of **enough**, the i-sound of **women** and the sh-sound of **nation**. You see, the irrational spelling of these words imposes a tremendous burden even on those whose natural language is English. The English writing is *not* “phonetic” as in Spanish. Once learnt the Spanish pronunciation rules (which takes only 10 minutes!), a beginner has no problems to read a Spanish text so that a native speaker could understand the reader. But a student of English needs certain tools and the personal support of a teacher. The tools could be audio or video recordings that gives the student a clear idea about the pronunciation. English dictionaries are only useful, when they have a written pronunciation reference to each of their words. For this purpose, good dictionaries have examples written with symbols of the *IPA* (International Phonetic Association). Teachers often try to tame the wild forms by explaining the spelling and pronunciation with a vast amount of rules. To be frank, most of those rules are soon forgotten.

There is a third grave difficulty: the grammar, or – to be precise – the **obsolete teaching methods of grammar** which plunges the student all too often into a situation of hopeless frustration. Teachers and grammar experts make the teaching in this aspect far too complicated, instead of using the comparatively simple English grammar as an advantage. In fact, the English grammar is much less complicated in

its structure than the grammar of German or French. English has become the primary language of global communication, the most understood and most important language on the world stage, not only because of the history. Nineteenth-century scientists felt that there is something special and unique about the English language itself. English is the strongest language because it dropped all its complicated rules. Linguist *Jacob Grimm* (of the Brothers Grimm) wrote to the *Royal Academy of Science* of Berlin in 1851: “*Of all the modern languages, not one has acquired such strength and vigour as the English. None of the living languages could be compared with it as to richness, rationality and close construction!*”

English in China

China’s first contact with the English language occurred between the Chinese and English traders, and the first missionary schools to teach English were established in Macau in the 1630s. However, the emphasis of English education only emerged after 1979 when Germany and the United States established strong diplomatic and economic ties with China. There is the claim that in China would be over 150 million English speakers or so, with 50 million pupils at secondary schools now studying the language.

200 million people, who either have learnt or are learning English in China, is an eye-catching number but a myth. The reality is pretty bleak. It took me a few years to find out why students who have learnt English for many years could not keep up any simple conversation and came to me for help. In the last eight years, I have visited hundreds of public schools and the depressing result of my survey is

that about 70% of all English teachers at primary schools cannot speak English at all! Around 60% of the English teachers at middle schools and about half the teachers at high schools cannot converse in English. Almost no-one of them conducts their English lessons in English! The situation at universities is a bit better, but far away from an ideal. Classes need improvement as the teachers themselves are not fluent in English. And what really has baffled me is the fact that almost all of those teachers even do not know the 32 English Verb tenses although the Verb tense is the most important tool to talk and write in English properly. Something must be done! Schools focus on traditional rote-memorisation (written and oral repetition) as the main learning strategy. The **Rotation tables** (See pages 330 - 360), which I have developed, fit very well to this teaching method and the use in language laboratories. As you will see, their contents make sense.

Ordinary English lessons all too often seem to be ruled by the motto “*We learn English from and by the book*”. Unfortunately, the people in charge ignore that learning a new language only makes sense when the learners learn to **SPEAK** the language and can gain something from their efforts! When you were little, have you learnt only your language? Clearly not! You had asked lots of questions. You have learnt how to describe the world around you. You have learnt about mathematics, the time, geography, chemistry, names. But primary learners in China do not have the right knowledge to do exactly that. In this book you can find plenty of stuff to teach it!

And so we must mention the **problem** of the **English textbooks** used in China. Students complain about difficulties in learning English.

However, the very same students deal with complicated processes in their environment or modern computer media but rarely complain about the extensive technical vocabulary they need to learn by heart. A bad memory alone cannot be the only learning problem to blame. The main reason for having difficulties in learning English is the *low quality* of the English textbooks at Chinese schools. The educational material in China hardly follows any of those **16 teaching and learning principles** which I have outlined above. Instead, the textbooks are overfilled with comic-like (often useless) conversations, shreds of incoherent grammar samples and multiple choice answer exercises. They may be convenient for English teachers who cannot speak English, but they do not help students at all. Very often, those unsuitable textbooks are just copies from America or elsewhere without having realised that those foreign textbooks are not created for Chinese but for users of the other Indo-European languages who do not need special features or explanations quite simply because their languages have the very same basic structure as English! The newer commercial textbooks for beginners justify the choice of words usually on their frequency. The authors choose from about 1,000 words that occur most frequently. However, this statistical method in the creation of modern textbooks has a serious *flaw*. Many of those frequent words are *phrases* and words that cannot be used *universally*, because they mostly apply to only one specific situation, or they appear only in the *written language*. Words are only displayed in their *contracted forms*. So it is no surprise that students, after having studied English for many years often cannot speak any proper English sentence, and they find it very hard to understand native English speakers. Frustrated, they give up and learn by heart only the

necessary points for filling in the gaps of their multiple choice exam papers. I believe that a great nation like China, who is most certainly THE world leader in mathematics, physics and chemistry education, can also do better in English! Education Ministries in China try now to improve English classes. I say, if the authorities would consider to create new textbooks based on the 16 principles given above, China could become the greatest English speaking country on Earth in a few years, overtaking India and even the United States!

Which Skills Should A Textbook Teach Us?

As Chinese students learn English as their second language, they have got some catching up to do. They lack things that we native speakers learn from our parents or in the nursery. From the earliest childhood we do not only learn new words but also the basic structure of our language. At school we have to do the very same here in China. It is a waste of time to teach only one feature (such as the Simple Present tense) during the entire first year. Such basic things must be taught "en bloc" or "in ONE package", and as soon as possible! And here are some rough ideas what to teach during the first 6 years. As for the contents in general, it is always disadvantageous to teach the "the last steps first, and the first steps last. To be precise, teaching intellectual topics and contents in primary or elementary ESL classes is inappropriate, just the same it is inappropriate to teach elementary topics and contents (like essential grammar features) later at middle and high schools. This causes confusion and uncertainty among students! This is why I feel compelled to give advice about what topics and features belong to ESL lessons in elementary or primary schools:

ESL (primary school) Year 1:

Issuing English given names to everyone in the class, learning Cardinal numbers from 1 to 20, Greetings, Apologising, Addressing persons with Sir / Madam, Mr / Mrs ..., Basic Conversation in questions and answers: Personal Pronouns. Singular, Plural. Verbs: to be, to have, to do. Topics: body, food, daily things at school and home.

Besides some basic vocabulary, the following 4 structures MUST be learnt in the very first year of English lessons:

1. The usage of the 4 Articles ***the, a / an, and no***;
 2. The **4 Simple** Verb tenses in the *Present, Past (during the 1st half of year), Future, and Future in the Past (in the 2nd half of year)*.
 3. We must learn *positive* question sentences as well as their *negatives* with "*do not*", "*be not*" and "*have not*" (***no contractions!***).
 4. We must learn the *positive* answer sentences as well as their *negatives* with "*do not*", "*be not*" and "*have not*" (***no contractions!***).
- Point 3 and 4 have to be practised together because questions and answers always belong together.

The concept of the Articles is a bit tricky to grasp as there are no Articles in Chinese. They could be best understood as if we would say in English "any book" for "a book" (in a translation to Chinese best explained with "yige shu"), and "a certain book" for "the book" (which would be most closely translated as "zhege shu"). And the negative Article as in "no book" easily can be explained with "meiyou shu".

The concept of the Simple or Basic Verb tenses is well-known, even to the youngest learners as all of them understand the time frames

Past - Present - Future, which is best be practised with the day names together. The Future in the Past is also understandable as we use those forms for "if-sentences" (in Chinese "ruguo"-sentences). It is vital to learn these 4 tenses first because all other tenses are build in exactly the same way with Past, Present, Future and Future in the Past forms! Remember: **English is based on tenses!** Teach them!

We learn short sentences with do, will, shall, can, may, must. We also learn 4 Conjunctions: and, or, if, when. We learn the question words what, who, whose where like this: "What is it / that / this?", Who is it / that / this? Whose is it / that / this? and "Where is it / that / this?" Asking the way and give answer: go straight / back, turn left / right. I already hear the question: "Can our Chinese students learn all that? My answer is clearly "Yes, absolutely, they can learn all that, because they are clever!" The more and faster they learn, the better they are prepared for the next steps, and it keeps the lessons interesting!

ESL Year 2:

In the second year, this should be learnt: *Ordinal Numbers* from 1 to 20, about 20 names of countries and cities. *Determiners* such as *this, these, that, those, here, there*. *Possessive Adjectives* and *Pronouns*.

Following structures should be learnt:

1. **Adjectives** and their **Comparisons** and **Superlatives** in

A. Positive: *beautiful, more beautiful (than), (the) most beautiful*

B. Negative: *not beautiful, less beautiful (than), (the) least beautiful*

2. The **4 Simple Continuous tenses** and also **the 4 Simple tenses in Passive**, since both are built in the very same way!

3. We learn a feature that native speakers use at all times: the

Phrasal Verbs. We begin with the most important ones: *get, put, come, go, give, take*. This includes Direction word pairs: *in, out; on, off; up, down, left, right, on, under*, and also the moving words *forewards, backwards, leftwards, rightwards, upwards, downwards; northwards, southwards, westwards, eastwards*.

4. Nouns in *Singular* and *Plural*; *countable* Nouns and *uncountable* Nouns; consequently, we must learn English *measure words* in order to use *uncountable Nouns*. Important measure words: *a cup of, a box of, a slice of, a piece of, a sheet of, a bottle of, a pot of, a pile of, a heap of, a lot of, plenty of, amount of, 100 grammes of, 2 kilogrammes of. And of course other amounts: one, two, three cups of; 1, 2, 3, 10, 15 slices of, etc.* All question words can be presented.

In the second year, students should learn things that interact with one another (*now we teach contractions as students know the full forms*):

A. The names and Adjectives of the basic shapes triangle / triangular; square / quadrangle / quadrangular; angle / angular; circle / cricular.

B. This includes all operations of the 4 basic arithmetics in simple plain language: + "and"; - "minus"; x "times"; ÷ divided by; = is

C. It also includes the names of the months and saying dates such as "*My birthday is on the 20th of May in 2009* (two-thousand and nine)"

ESL Year 3:

We have to learn more scientific contents. But be careful and use only plain common words. Geography, Space, Solar System, the planets, the orbit, the moons, the Moon; Earth / globe, continent, Africa, Asia, Europe, North America, South America, Australia, Antarctica. This includes the largest and the most important countries, their big cities

and famous regions such as the Champs-Élysées in Paris, the Broadway in New York, the Forbidden City in Beijing, the Hollywood Walk of Fame in Los Angeles, Selfridges in London's Oxford Street, the Brandenburg Gate in Berlin, the Rocky Mountains, the Alps, the Himalaya, the Gobi desert, the Sahara desert, the River Thames, the River Rhine, the River Nile, the Mississippi River, the Yellow River, the Suez Canal, the Panama Canal, etc. You just have to show pictures of those or other places and practise their names with the students.

Following structures should be learnt:

1. In the 3rd year, it is time to learn sentences with two clauses. In order to achieve good results we need to learn more conjunctions; *because, although, then, inspite of, despite,*
2. The **4 Perfect** Verb tenses in the *Present, Past, Future, and Future in the Past.*
3. Adverbs, their *Comparisons* and *Superlatives*, and how to use them with Verbs, how to use them in a simple sentence, teach the 5-column sentence table
4. Sentence structure of the Relative clause; the Relative Pronouns *that, which, who, whose, whom, when,* the Zero Relative Pronoun.

All 32 Verb tenses should be presented in the Henfield table system.

ESL Year 4:

Words for technical devices would be an important topic in year 4. telegraph, telephone, telescope, microscope, phonograph, stereo, tape recorder, mobile phone, Compact Disk CD, DVD, propeller, submarine, aeroplane, spacecraft, etc.

Following structures should be learnt:

1. In the 4th year, it is time to learn sentences with more than two clauses
2. The **4 Perfect Continuous** Verb tenses in the *Present, Past, Future, and Future in the Past.*
3. The *contractions, question tags*, common abbreviations, homophones, homonyms, synonyms, different words for male and female, for the offspring and the groups.
4. The use of transitive and intransitive Verbs

In addition, students should now learn the Personal Pronouns of the 2nd Person Singular: ***thou, thee, thy / thine, thyself*** because they are a very important part of our poems, anthems, lyrics, and the Bible.

ESL Year 5 and 6:

Following structures should be learnt:

1. All the 16 Verb tenses in the **Passive Voice**
2. Which is the correct Verb form: **Infinitive** or **Gerund**?
3. Asking yes-no questions and questions for information
- 4 Giving appropriate answers. Giving answers by avoiding to give any substantial information.
5. Giving short speeches such as introducing yourself or your school

In General:

The lessons should not only consist of conversation but must right from the start equally contain full texts about a topic which has significance in English-speaking countries. It is certainly useful to teach two to six songs per semester, or poems. One or two fairy tales

or short stories should be read per semester. Lessons should not be pure (or poor) lectures from the front but should be interactive. Describing things and persons in detail, and writing texts after dictation is helpful. Spelling competitions improve spelling. Letting the students create and write their own little stories is helpful. Role plays are helpful. Establishing an English choir is fun and helpful too. By the end of their middle school education, all students should have learnt the basic English features described on the pages from 41 to 622!

Contents Of This Handbook

Deciphering English to Chinese students is a troublesome job for any teacher. But teachers can make the life of English-students much easier by using one of the oldest and most effective teaching methods. Certain patterns and principles have to be said to the learners (in English!) again and all over again, for example when there is a sentence or expression in Present tense, the teacher always should ask: *What is it in the Past?, What is it in the Future, in the Future in the Past? What is it in the 4 Continuous and in the 4 Perfect tenses? What is it in Passive? What is the correct question to it? What is the opposite expression of it?* The teacher has to ask these questions again and again, and letting the learner write down their own answers, until they make a habit of asking themselves automatically.

This handbook will answer you at least some of your questions, hence it will make your teaching or learning much easier. In this handbook I deliberately have omitted all unnecessary features, but you will find here everything which is absolutely vital to use English correctly. Using English without too large a vocabulary is called Basic English.

Basic English once learned, it is then easy to put more English vocabulary on top of it. Learning English with systems that make sense is exactly what this book is all about.

Lord Henfield's Handbook of Practical English is a powerful manual in which you can find useful ideas to make up new English lessons or to embroider your old ones. The book is like a guide in which you can find lots of features of the English language and the ways how to use them. The book contains these seven main parts:

The first part, THE ENGLISH TONGUE, presents you *interesting facts* about the English language. You can find ***The Story of the English Language*** which shows the turbulent history of the first English people. Then you will see what ***language*** has to do with ***religion*** and ***culture***.

A short introduction into linguistics makes the relations clear that English has with other languages. Then we can see how spelling and pronunciation effects learning. Just like in a ***Teacher's Corner***, we will display facts about ***Mandarin, lesson plans, spelling patterns***, the ***Phonics systems*** and the valuable knowledge of ***Basic English*** and the ***32 Rules And Tricks For The Efficient Use Of English***.

In the second part, THE ENGLISH PARTS OF SPEECH, I shall give you some basic knowledge of those sorts of words which are called "operators" in Basic English. Most of them are Determiners, Pronouns, some Adverbs, Conjunctions. The most important ones ought to be learnt first as they "hold all the other words together" in a sentence.

The third part, THE VERB, is the largest grammar part as the Verb is the core of the English language. It informs you about all difficulties that the English Verb causes. Here you will find solutions to problems that are no problems at all. You just need to look at proper examples in order to learn all relevant forms: The 8 Infinitives, the 4 Gerunds, the 6 Participles, the 4 Helper Verbs (be, have, do, get) and the 10 Modal Verbs in all their Question and Answer forms. The explanations that follow give you a good idea what those forms mean and what we use them for. The Verb is shown here in different styles so that the learner has a good chance to understand the system.

The section on ***The Art Of Asking Questions*** gives you thousands of examples for speaking practice. Although the topic is about "questions in sentences", I have placed it to *The Verbs* as it is mainly concerned with Verb forms. If you really want to become fluent in English, I suggest that you speak all those questions aloud like an actor has to learn his lines before he goes onto the stage. It might be important because some forms are rarely used.

The fourth part, THE NOUN, is about everything that is related to the Noun: Determiners, Articles, Pronouns, Adjectives. Even Adverbs are also described here as most of them come from Adjectives, Adjectives and Adverbs share the very same Comparatives and Superlatives.

The Noun itself is in this chapter presented in special lists that make sense because they describe what we use certain types of Nouns for. Singular, Plural; Nouns for male, Nouns for female, Rang and Hierarchy are all important.

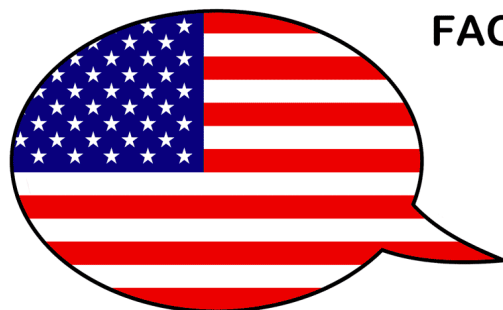
The fifth part, THE SENTENCE, shows you tables and examples of the rigid, and therefore, simple sentence structure in English. The most awkward sentence type is surely the Relative Clause. This is why we put more focus onto this peculiar pattern.

The sixth part, THE KNOW-HOW OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH, gives you a lot of ***lesson material*** to prepare your classes. The material is suitable for beginners as well as advanced students. I shall present clear ideas to you and how you can describe things for which you do not know the specific word yet. You can see how we use numbers, how we describe shapes, colours, how to address people properly, writing letters, and many other things. you will find a little English course that focusses on daily and ***Basic Conversation***.

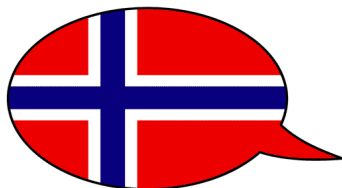
In the last part, THE JEWELLERY OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE, you will find lots of additional information and practice samples you were always looking for. There are extended word lists of Basic English, Synonyms, Homonyms, words that describe the sound of things and living beings, slang and colloquial language, military drill commands, geographical names and their Adjectives, Phrasal Verbs, daily phrases, proverbs and sayings, given names and family names.

As you you never have seen anywhere before, here in this handbook you will find all essential facts that makes the English language. It is not a lot of knowledge but the ***right knowledge*** which gives you the power to become a skillful an eloquent user of the English language!

Lord Henfield, London 2018.



FACTS



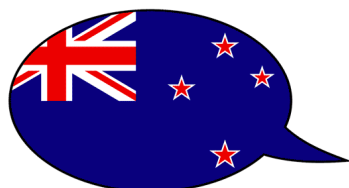
ESL (English as
Second Language)

HISTORY OF ENGLISH



ORIGIN

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
ENGLISH AND CHINESE



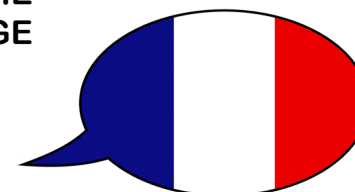
INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE FAMILY

The

1600
Years Of
Development

THE STORY OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE

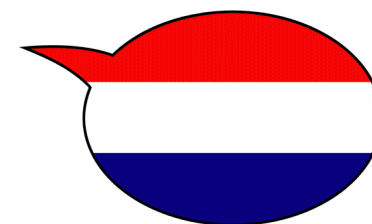
Pinyin Examples



TRADITION

English

Tongue



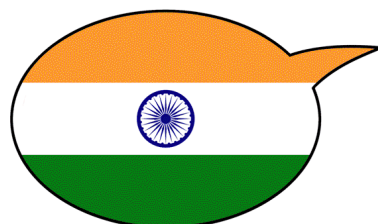
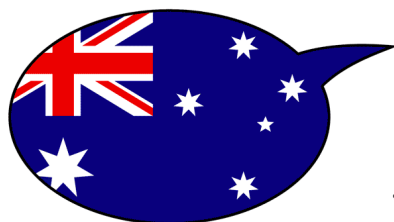
Origin of
Vocabulary

WHERE IS
ENGLISH
SPOKEN?

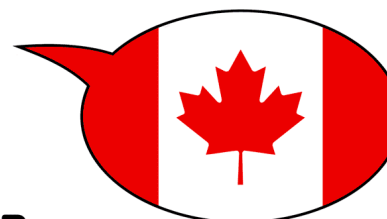
Grammar
Comparison

LESSON PLAN

GLOBAL LANGUAGE



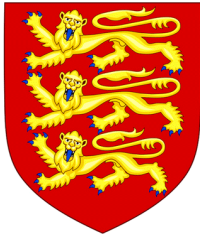
SIGNIFICANCE
IN THE WORLD



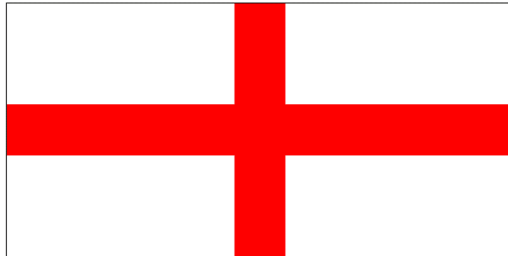
Orthography



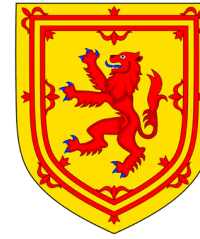
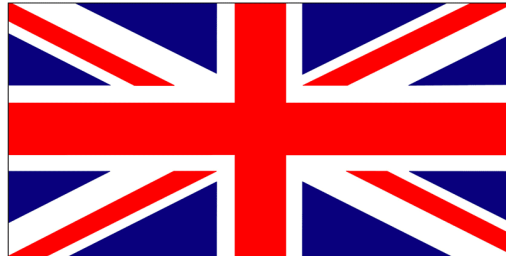
THE TEACHER'S CORNER



England



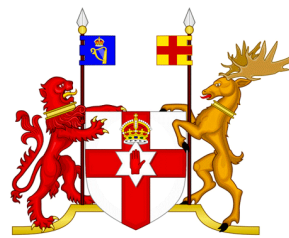
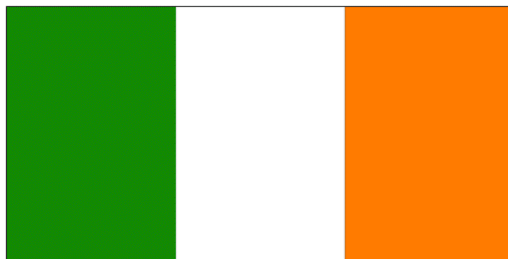
The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland



Scotland



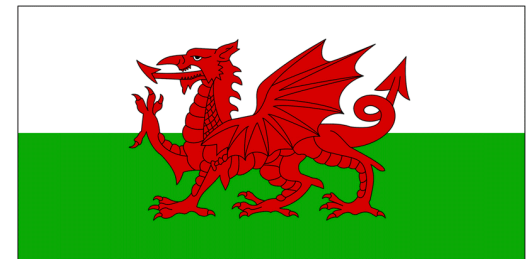
The Republic of Ireland



Northern Ireland



Wales



The coat-of-arms and flags of those nations who spread English over all the planet. The United Kingdom consists of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Republic of Ireland is independent today.

THE STORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English is the native language of about 400 million people, about three times more can speak English as their second language and twice as many learn it at school. English circles the globe. How has it all begun? Let me tell you the story of this great journey and you will see why and in what way English is so similar to so many other languages. The story of the English language and its people reads like a great adventure. The history of Britain was marked by four great Invasions. Let us look back:

The First Great Invasion – The Romans

The City of Rome in the year 60 BC. Europe is largely ruled by the *Roman Empire*. *Julius Caesar*, a Roman Army leader, the son of a good Roman family, is about to increase his political power, being a member of the three most important leaders of the government already. Caesar's politics cover three main objectives: He is determined to fight for equal rights, to get rid of the corrupt government which is led by the rich upper class, and to *globalise* the *Roman culture* – if necessary by conquering other nations and making them a part of the Roman Empire. In these times a politician does not get money for his work by the government. On the contrary: He has to have money in order to get such a powerful job. So he is deeply in debts. Caesar decides to take an army command. This job brings money and honours! Rumours that the *Germans* want to invade *Gallia* (today France) arrive Rome. Caesar [*speak: si:sar*] plans to lead the Roman Army to fight against the *Celtic* [*speak: keltik*] and German people behind the Roman border.



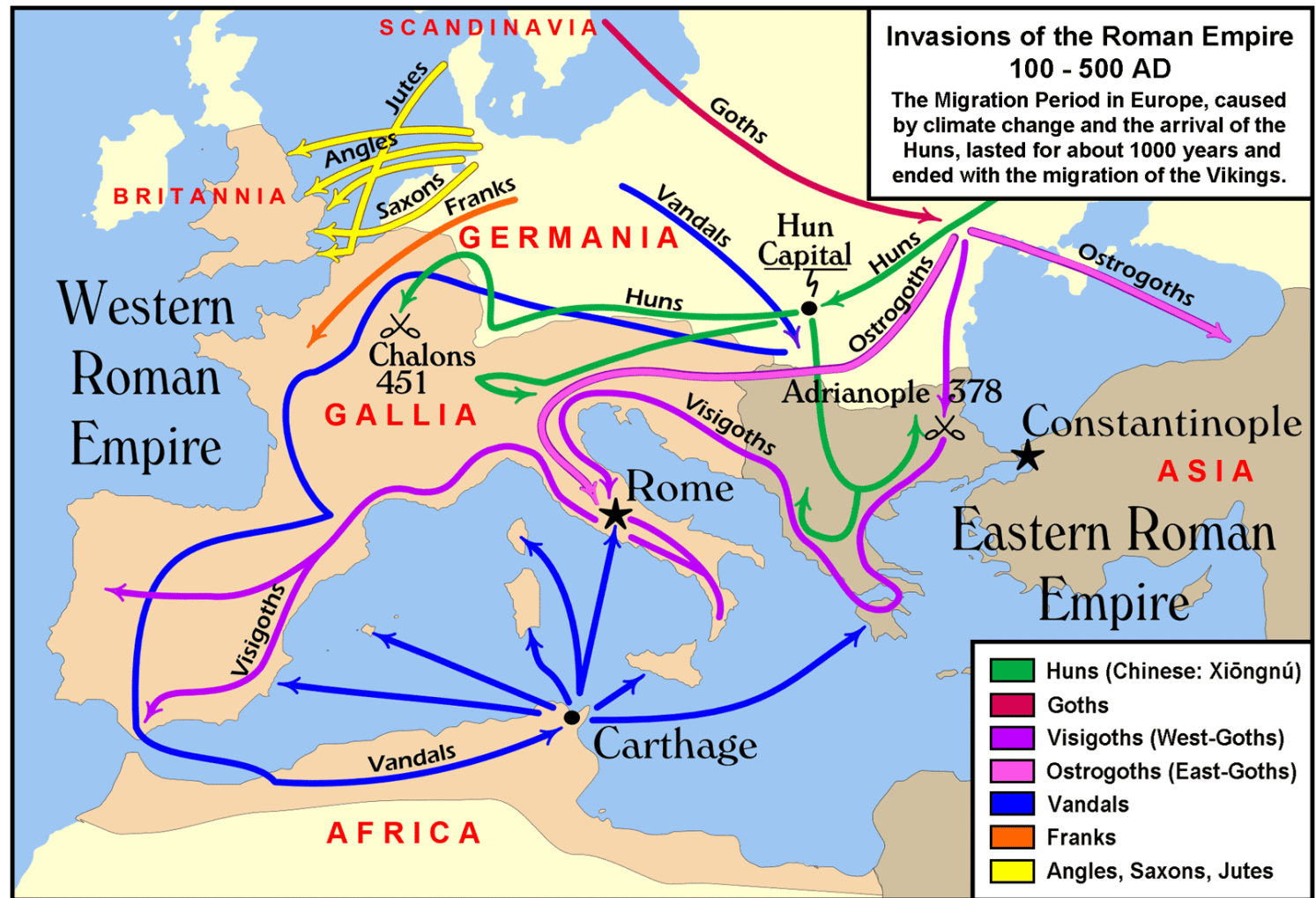
Vercingetorix, the beaten leader of Gallia, surrenders his surviving armies to the Roman victor Julius Caesar. Gallia becomes a platform to the invasion of Britain a few decades later.

Caesar defeated many Celtic tribes quickly but he did not stop with these victories. He defeated also the German invaders and rushed after the survivors to *Germania* (today Germany) over the River Rhine in 56 BC, building bridges and sending fighting troops deep into Germania. In 55 BC, Caesar sailed to Celtic *Britannia* (today Britain) to secure his conquests. Several thousand Roman soldiers landed on

the British coast, pushing forwards to London and establishing the first garrisons on British soil. The Celts kept fighting on. Vercingetorix, their leader in Gallia, came to power in 52 BC, raised an army and was proclaimed king. He immediately established an alliance with other Celtic tribes, took control of their combined armies and led them into Gallia's most significant revolt against Roman power. On October 2, 54 BC, after several years of fierce fighting, Vercingetorix and his 300,000 soldiers faced a series of defeats around his capital *Alesia* against Caesars only 60,000 men. On the next day, the surviving armies of Gallia

surrendered. Caesar conquered Gallia entirely and made her a Roman Province. For Caesar, the Gallia campaign was an enormous personal success, both militarily and politically. For the Celtic warriors

in Gallia it was a disaster, but for the Celtic civilians it was a win to become a part of Roman culture.



Some years later, the Romans tried to invade Germania, but were decisively beaten in 9 AD by the Germans under the leadership of the German prince *Arminius*, formerly a leading commander in the Roman Army who changed his loyalty and fought for his German country-fellowmen since. In 43 AD, the Roman army began an enormous campaign to make *Britain* a Roman Province. Britain remained in the grip of Roman power as Roman Province for the next 350 years. The Celtic inhabitants embraced *Roman culture* and life improved to a high standard. Roman language and way of life spread all over the *British Lowlands* (today known as England).

At the End of the 2nd century AD began a time which is today known as *Migration Period*. Probably as a consequence of *climate changes*, which worsened the living conditions of all northern people, the *Germanic* tribes in Europe and the *Huns* (in China known as 匈奴 “Xiong-nú”) in Asia moved southwards in great numbers where they soon arrived the borders of two large Empires: the *Roman Empire* and the *Chinese Han Empire*. After a long period, the Han Empire built the *Great Wall* and the Han Armies defeated one Hun tribe after another. Many Huns saw no other chance than fleeing west until they eventually arrived eastern Europe and run into conflict with *German* people being on their way south, such as the *Goths*, *Vandals*, and others who originally came from *Scandinavia*.

In the mid 4th century, the western part of the Roman Empire was in dissolution weakened by constant military conflicts from outside as well as from corruption, environmental problems and social changes inside. The Germans, overrun the entire Roman territory in the West

with gathering force. The eastern part of the Roman Empire could resist and flourished for another 5 centuries.

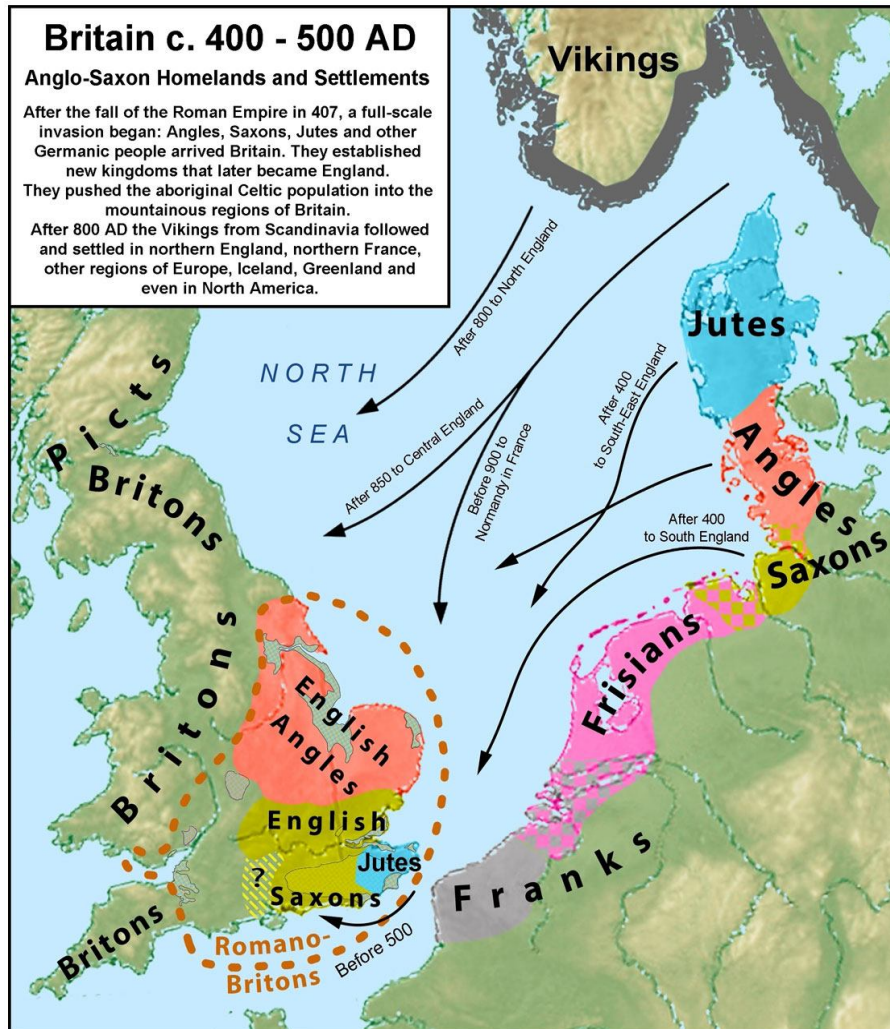


In the 5th and 6th centuries, Saxons, Angles and other German warriors arrived Britain. Their language, Old-English, spread over all British islands and became our modern English.

The Second Great Invasion – The Saxons, Angles And Other Germans

In about 360 AD, the *Romano-Britons* faced a threat to their Roman lifestyle: Their own country-fellowmen in the Highlands of *Scotland* and *Wales* and even from *Ireland* began to raid the Lowlands. German pirates arrived, crossing the North Sea in their fast *longships*.

Then, from the other side of Britain, Irish pirates were trying to take advantage. The Celts were fierce fighters and year after year they got the Roman troops into more trouble. The better organised Germans



on the other side fought against both with techniques they have learned from the Romans. The first Germans arrived Britain already in the 1st century AD as Roman Soldiers, soon followed by traders and some settlers from northern Germany. The year 383 marks the end of Roman rule in northern and western Britain. In that year, Roman troops abandoned those regions. In about 407 AD, the last Roman armies left Britain in order to fight against the Germanic Goths in Central Europe and the Asian Huns in Eastern Europe.

The struggle in Britain was not over, because not all Roman troops left: The German soldiers of the Roman army stayed and plunged Lowland Britain in a series of wars that lasted over the next decades. In the meantime thousands of Germans from northern Germany moved westwards to today's Holland, Belgium and northern France. Among them: *Saxons, Angles, Frisians, Franks, Jutes* and others. Now in 441 these so-called *Anglo-Saxons* saw their chance for a better life and crossed The Channel. They took the exhausted Celts by surprise and invaded the Lowlands that became the future *England*. With them they took their western Germanic language, Anglo-Saxon, a language that eventually became our English language.

In the meantime, in Central Gallia the Battle of the *Catalaunian Plains* (near Châlons), took place in 451 AD. A coalition led by the Roman general *Flavius Aëtius* and the West-Gothic king *Theodoric I.* fought against the Huns and their allies commanded by their leader *Attila the Hun*. It was one of the last major military operations of the *Western Roman Empire* though *West-Gothic* soldiers also formed the core of the allied Roman army. The battle was a victory for the Romans who defeated the armies of Attila, stopping the Huns' attempt to conquer

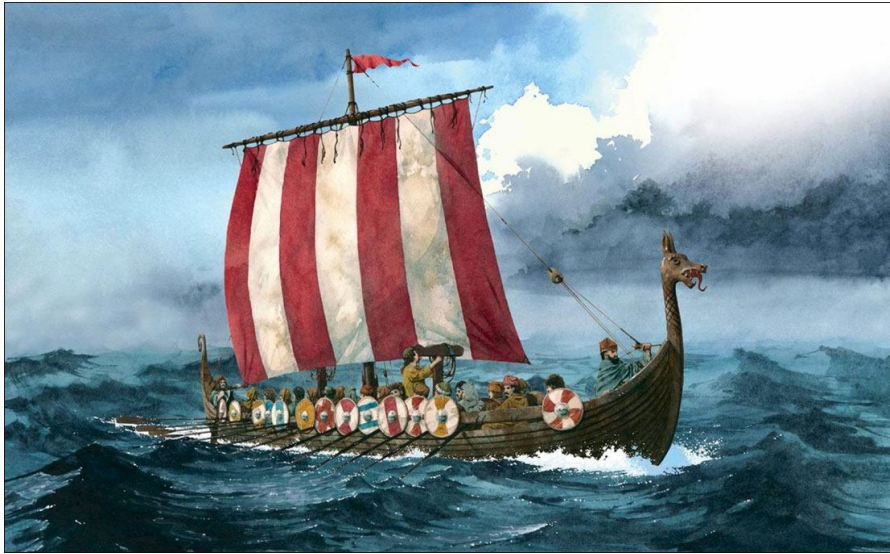
Roman Gallia and crushing Attila's dreams of invading the Roman Empire. It was ultimately the end of his empire in Europe. The Huns were destroyed later by a coalition of Germanic peoples at the Battle of Nedao in 454. The battle also weakened the already fragile Western Roman Empire, which collapsed 25 years later, in 476.

The Third Great Invasion – The Vikings

In the 6th century, the Anglo-Saxon invaders managed to gain total control over the British Lowlands. More than 200,000 settlers followed. Saxons, Angles and Jutes built their kingdoms. They soon intermarried with the Romano-Britons, taking the Roman culture as their own. On the other hand, the Britons had to learn the Anglo-Saxon language when they wanted to achieve anything in this new society. So the new language spread over great parts of the islands. At this time, some of traders arrived from *Scandinavia*. Christian missionaries also arrived from Ireland and other parts of Europe bringing the art of writing to the Germans. The Anglo-Saxons became Christians like the Romans. Soon the first books were published: in Anglo-Saxon, or as we say today: *Old-English*. English became a language of literature, as one of the first languages in Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire.

At the same time, in Denmark, Norway and Sweden lived German peoples who called themselves *Vikings* which means "seafarers". Their North Germanic language, *Old Norse*, will become the mother-tongue of all present-day Scandinavian languages: Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Icelandic and Faroese.





For about 1000 years, all Germanic warriors – Anglo-Saxons, Vikings and Normans – used the same boat type: the “longship”. With these fast boats they crossed the North Sea and the Vikings even reached America at about AD 1000. Thousands of those boats landed in Britain and other parts of Europe.

By 801 the *Danes* began to look beyond their own territory for land, trade and plunder. In Norway, the mountainous terrain and fjords formed strong natural boundaries. Communities there remained independent of each other, unlike the situation in Denmark which is lowland. By 800, some 30 small kingdoms existed in Norway. The sea was the easiest way of communication between the Norwegian kingdoms and the outside world. It was in the 8th century that Scandinavians began to build ships of war and sent them on raiding expeditions to initiate the *Viking Age*.

The Vikings were traders, plunderers, colonisers and explorers as well as gifted artists. They began to invade western and eastern Europe and also settled in the Faroe Islands, Ireland, Iceland, Scotland, northern Germany, Greenland, Canada, and northern France where these *Norsemen* or “Northmen” could establish a new state: the Normandy. At the end of the 8th century, the Vikings from Norway and Denmark launched their first assaults on England looking for loot and new slaves.

Isle of Portland in Dorset, South-West England, 787 AD. A Viking group sailing from Norway landed at the coast of Dorset where, they were mistaken for merchants by a royal official. They murdered him when he tried to get them to accompany him to the king’s manor to pay a trading tax on their goods.

Lindisfarne, North-East England, 8 June 793 AD. A great number of Viking longships landed on the shores. The raiders killed the monks and captured the valuables. This raid marks the beginning of the “Viking Age” in England. They returned to Lindisfarne in 802 slaughtering the inhabitants and burning the abbey to the ground. The raids were made possible by the *Viking longship*, an open boat type already used by the Anglo-Saxons but improved in construction. Raids remained sporadic in the last decade of the 8th century on England’s northern and eastern shores: Viking raids continued on a small scale across coastal England and Ireland. While the initial raiding groups were small, but a great amount of planning is involved and they were committed with great brutality, and the number of raids increased steadily each year.

The *Norwegians* raided during the winter between 840 and 841, rather than the usual summer, having waited on an island off Ireland. In 850 Vikings overwintered for the first time in England, on the island of Thanet, Kent. In 854 a raiding party overwintered a second time at the Isle of Sheppey in the Thames estuary.

In 864 they reverted to Thanet for their winter encampment. The following year a great Viking Army led by *Guthrum*, Ivar the Boneless, Halfdan and Ubbe Ragnarsson, arrived in *East Anglia*. They proceeded to cross England into Northumbria and captured the *City of York*, establishing the Viking community named *Jorvik*, where a lot of Vikings settled as farmers and craftsmen. Most of the English kingdoms, being in turmoil, could not stand against the Vikings. In 867 *Northumbria* became the northern kingdom of *Danelaw*, after its conquest by the brothers Halfdan Ragnarsson and Ivar the Boneless, who installed an Englishman, Ecgberht, as a puppet king.

By 870 another great Viking armada arrived in England, led by a Viking leader called Bagsecg. Aided by Guthrum's Viking Army (which had already overrun much of England), Bagsecg's and Halfdan's forces raided much of England until 871, when they planned an invasion of Wessex.

On 8 January 871, Bagsecg got killed at the Battle of Ashdown by the English troops of *Alfred of Wessex*. In spring 878 Alfred united all Anglo-Saxon troops and defeated Guthrum's Viking army forcing them to north-east England, which became a Viking kingdom. When the victorious king Alfred came to London in 886, he was proclaimed



“Sovereign of all English people not under rule of the Vikings”. Alfred, who was educated in Rome as a young man, translated books into English, published them and massively promoted the English language. This and the struggle against the Vikings gave the Anglo-Saxons for the first time the vision of a united England. He became known as “Alfred the Great”.

A new wave of Norwegian Vikings appeared in England in 947 when Erik Bloodaxe captured York. The Viking presence continued throughout the reign of the Danish *King Cnut the Great* (1016–1035), after which a series of inheritance arguments weakened power of his descendants. By 1012, the Vikings had been in service in England as a kind of personal bodyguards to the King of England. They received payment, the so-called *Danegeld*, which lasted from 1012 to 1066 and stopped Viking raids for almost twenty years. The Viking presence dwindled until their last assault in 1066.

The Forth Great Invasion – The Normans

The *Norman* conquest of England in the 11th-century was the invasion of England by an army of *Norman*, *Breton*, and *French* soldiers led by *Duke William II* of Normandy, later known as *William the Conqueror*. While Romans, Saxons and Vikings took many years to occupy some parts of Britain, the Norman army overrun the whole country in a few months by conducting a well-prepared *blitzkrieg*. The Normans immediately built castles in order to secure their newly occupied possessions.





The Norman Conquest is depicted on an amazing piece of art: The Tapestry of Bayeux. This ancient cartoon shows the longships and the entire story of the conquest. Consisting of several joined lengths of linen, the hanging is 50 cm wide and 70.4 m long. The final section of the work – probably showing the coronation of William – is missing. The propaganda cartoon was first exhibited on 14 July 1077, in the cathedral at Bayeux, Normandy, northern France, where it still can be seen.

The Norman Conquest had a reason. The death of *King Edward the Confessor* of England in January 1066 triggered a succession struggle for the English throne. William's claim to the English throne derived from his familial relationship with the childless Anglo-Saxon King Edward the Confessor, who was half a Norman from his mother's side. Once he promised the English throne to his Norman cousin William. But the English noblemen did not like the prospect of being ruled by an outsider from abroad and were determined to grant the throne to an Anglo-Saxon candidate, so they elected Edward's brother-in-law as *King Harold II* of England.

William on the other side of the Channel was equally determined to win the throne of England and thus increased his power and wealth. William and his allies built a fleet of 776 longships and prepared it to carry war equipment, his 7000 soldiers, and 2000 war horses across the Channel to England. The ships were over 20 metres long and up to five metres wide. They had no deck, but planking drawn to a curve at prow and stern; amidships was a square sail, and a tiller was attached aft on the starboard side. This was the type of boat sailed by the Saxons and Vikings, a reminder that the now French-speaking Normans themselves once originally were *Northmen*, *Vikings*.

To help him taking England, William, himself a descendent of the Vikings, exploited the expansionist ambitions of the ruling Norwegian king *Harald Hardrada*. He had persuaded him to invade Northern England in order to force King Harold to march north to meet the Viking army. Harald Hardrada landed with 300 longships and 15,000 troops in northern England in September 1066, was victorious at the Battle of Fulford, but Harold defeated and killed him at the Battle of Stamford Bridge on 25 September 1066. Harold annihilated almost the entire Viking army. With only 24 ships the survivors could leave for Norway, never to return to England. On 28 September, William landed in southern England. Harold had to march his weakened army 400km south to meet the new invasion, leaving a significant portion of his army in the north. Harold's tired army confronted William's invaders on 14 October at the *Battle of Hastings*. William's forces decisively defeated Harold, who got killed in the engagement. On 25 December 1066 William was crowned the new King of England.

A new era began. Although William's main rivals were gone, he still faced rebellions over the following years and was not secure on his throne until after 1072. His armies raided Wales and southern Scotland, finally gaining total control over England. To control his new kingdom, William ordered his surviving troops and newly arriving officials to record an entire survey of the land and everything in it. This special record is known as "*Doomsday Book*". He gave English lands and positions to his about 150 Norman noblemen and granted them the authority to rule over them. There was little alteration in the structure of government, as the new Norman administrators took over many of the forms of Anglo-Saxon government. Other effects of the



conquest included the court and government, the introduction of Norman French as the language of the elites, and changes in the composition of the upper classes. More gradual changes affected the agricultural classes and village life, for example, the formal elimination of slavery.

When William died in 1087, England was a different type of society: The ruling upper class spoke *French* and spread French culture throughout the country, the *Church* was ruled from Rome and the entire church staff spoke *Latin* (which is another name for the Roman language), 99% of the population continued to speak *English* – the English in the south still spoke Anglo-Saxon English while the people in the north spoke English that was influenced by *Old-Norse*, the Viking language. For the next 300 years, England was divided into three societies with three different languages.

During that time a more modern English language appeared: *Middle English*. When William the Conqueror took over England in 1066 with his armies and became

king, he brought his nobles, who spoke Norman-French, to be the new government. They stopped English from being taught in schools for a long time, and the language changed greatly, because it was mostly being spoken instead of written for about 300 years.

English speakers borrowed so many words from *Norman-French* at that time that English could be called a different language, Middle English. *Geoffrey Chaucer* was the most famous writer of Middle English, especially with his *Canterbury Tales* first published in 1387. After more sound changes, Middle English became *Modern English*. Although the works of *William Shakespeare* might seem very old, they are actually called modern English because we can understand them. Look at these examples:

Old English, 8th century

Uren Fader thic arth in heofnas,
Sic gehalgud thin noma.
To cymeth thin ryc.
Willa thin sue gedan
in heofnas, and in eortho.
Gefe us thes daej brede daeglige ure.
And forgefe us scylda urne,
sue we forgefan scyldgum urum.
And no in lead usith in custnung.
Ah gefrig urich from ifle. Amen.

Middle English, 13th century

Oure Fadir that art in hevenes,
Halewid be thi name,
Thi kingdome come to thee,
Be thi will don
in eerthe as in hevene.
Give to us to day oure daiyle breed
And forgive to us oure dettis
as we forgiven oure dettours.
And lede us not into temptation,
But deliver us from ivel. Amen.

Modern English, 17th century

Our Father which art in heaven,
Hallowed be thy name.
Thy kingdom come.
Thy will be done,
in earth, as it is in heaven.
Give us to-day our daily bread.
And forgive us our debts,
as we forgive our debtors.
And lead us not into temptation.
but deliver us from evil. Amen.

Ancient texts can show us how a language develop over a certain period of time. This comparison of the Lord's Prayer from three different eras shows us the changes of English within a thousand years time. The difference between Old English and Middle English is much larger than between Middle English and Modern English. The Lord's Prayer is one of the most important texts in all Christian religions and their church services. It is from the New Testament of the Bible (Matthew 6:9-13 and Luke 11:1-4).

The Silent Revolution – Printing Changes The World

“What the world is today, good and bad, it owes to Gutenberg. Everything can be traced to this source, but we are bound to bring him homage, ... for the bad that his colossal invention has brought about is overshadowed a thousand times by the good with which mankind has been favored.”

American writer Mark Twain (1835–1910)



A case with types. It is divided into an *upper case* (here on the left) and a *lower case* (on the right). On top we can see a set-frame. All types are equal in length and height. Within a few decades, printing turned the social balance in Europe upside-down.

City of Mainz, Germany, 1450. *Johannes Gutenberg* (1390s – 1468), a German blacksmith, goldsmith and inventor, published a number of Latin Grammar books. On 23 February 1455 he issued several *printed copies* of his *Gutenberg Bible*. A spectacular sensation at that time, because up to now all published books were written by hand! What was it that made *printing* so sensational?

It is obvious when you see this fact: To write a single copy of a voluminous book such as the Bible took around 4 to 5 years for only one writer including all the colourful decorations and the cover. As a consequence, only one Bible had cost about 250,000 Yuan in today's money. Gutenberg produced 180 copies in the year 1455 alone, an output of one new Bible every second day to a cost of only 250 Yuan!

Printing was invented in *China* already 2000 years ago. Wooden movable types (letters, characters) were first made in China in around 1040 AD by *Bi Sheng* (毕昇) (990–1051). Why could Bi Sheng not gain the same success as Gutenberg? The answer is simple: Any Chinese printer had to use the vast amount of 50,000 types while Europeans use the types of the Alphabet, that contain less than 100 types for all letters and special signs. They have space in only one case which is divided in two halves, the *upper* and the *lower case*. This advantage made Gutenberg's printing process so very effective. Bi Sheng and other inventors also failed to do what Gutenberg did. In total secrecy, Gutenberg developed an *entire printing system* almost to perfection. He did not use wooden types but types made of metal, an *alloy* consisting mostly of *lead* and *tin*, with a small amount of *antimony* for hardening. He used a system of *casting* new types in a *mould*. In these moulds he produced thousands of exact type *copies*. So Gutenberg could replace worn-out types in minutes. In addition, he used oil-based *varnish* as ink, type-set frames and a *printing press* for the more efficient printing process itself. The entire system was so perfect that it was in use for the next 500 years. Gutenberg's truly epochal invention set a silent revolution in motion that was not to be stopped by anyone. A new era begun: the *Renaissance*.

Gutenberg's printing boosted education all over Europe. The arrival of mechanical movable type printing introduced the era of mass communication which permanently altered the structure of society. Twenty years later, in the 1470s, *William Caxton* introduced this amazing reproduction process to England. The rapidly increasing



circulation of information and revolutionary ideas had dramatic consequences. The sharp increase of reading and writing capabilities in all parts of the society broke the monopoly of the literate elite on education. It also weakened the power of the political and religious authorities.

The 12th of October, 1492 was another date that changed the course of history: Christopher Columbus had discovered America for Spain. A

run for new colonies began, for wealth, for King and country and for God in the name of the Roman Catholic Church.

While from the mid 16th century Spanish gold hunters plundered the New World, English pirates under protection of Queen Elizabeth of England plundered right those ships on their way back home to Spain. In 1584, *Sir Walter Raleigh* and his pirates took the first lands in North America in possession as first English colonies and called them *Virginia*. In July 1588, a fifth, great invasion of Britain was on the way from Spain but it ended in total disaster for the *Great Spanish Armada*. The invasion remained a fateful attempt and ended with the annihilation of the Spanish sea power in August 1588, giving birth to the *British Empire*.

The newly born nations of Europe began to colonise other continents. In the end, the British Empire covered one fifth of the Earth with about one fourth of the entire world population. The *Industrial Revolution* was born and was soon followed by social upheavals. During *World War I* and *World War II*, the *United States of America* emerged as a new English-speaking power. The English language replaced all other languages as language of diplomacy, politics, science, business and education. English is now widely accepted as *World language*, but not only because of the British Empire or its descendant the United States of America.

What does this story tell us? What is it that makes the English language today so successful, particularly as a world language? The story gives us the answer. During the last 1600 years, English reflects

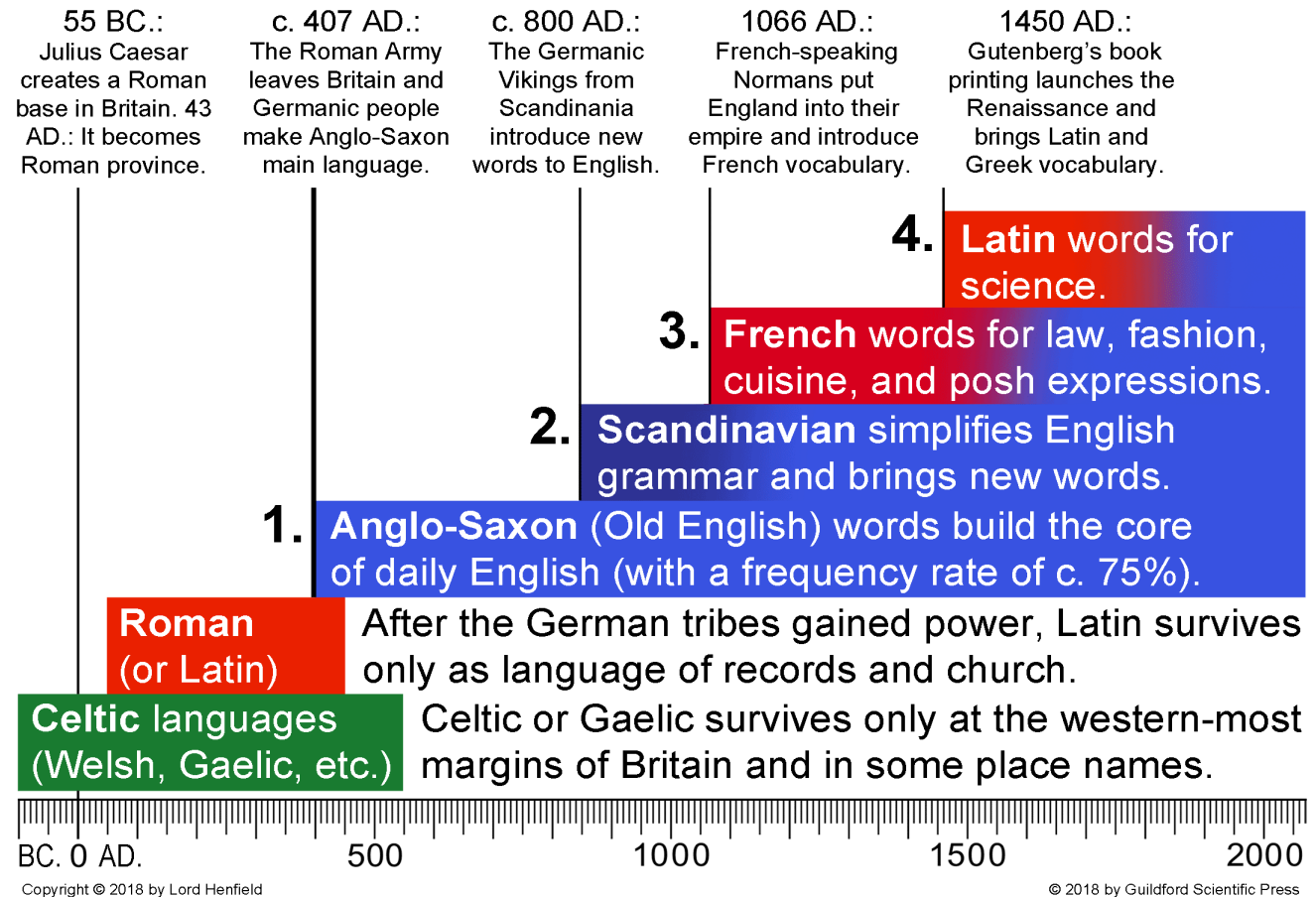
precisely that what we nowadays call *Globalisation*. English is truly the heir of the *Roman language* and *culture* as well as the heir of its greatest opponent, German. English is the carrier of *Viking boldness* as well as *French elegance*. When you learn English, you do not only meet *Anglo-American culture*, you encounter the entire culture of the West.

We are the inheritors of an amazing language. The English language underwent an early form of globalisation and it has grown with it. Today, English is preferred as *second language*, since students whose native language is a western language can find a great deal of their own language in English. And it is no wonder that a learner whose language is related to English can learn English in a very short time. English is also attractive to students of Asian origin as its extremely simplified grammar shares a lot of similarities with the Chinese languages.

Like a sponge, English eagerly absorbs words and expressions from any language. English is a steadily

evolving language and is, as no other language, fit for the future challenges of the modern globalisation. Over the last 1600 years the English-speaking people achieved much which is remarkable, but in my view, their greatest success story of all is the English language!

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE - HISTORY OF ITS GLOBALISATION

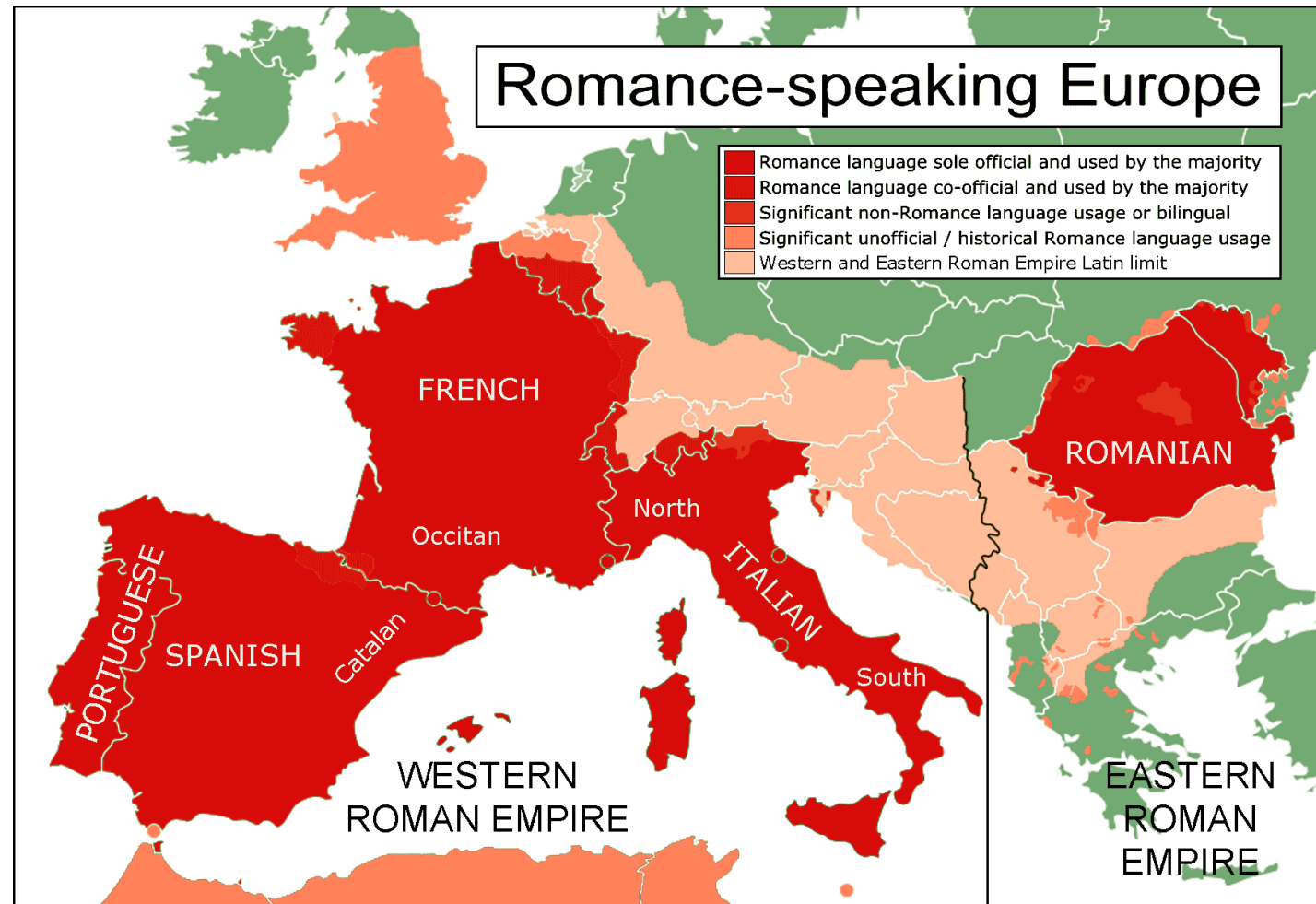


A Quick Journey Through World History of Language

This is a journey through two millenia of language, belief and a history which formed the essential landscape of our World. As *citizens of the Planet Earth*, we should understand some main events as they still influence us today. A good way to do it is to show some facts in a simplified manner. We just have to keep in mind that those facts may apply to the *majority* of the people in a particular region, but probably not to one or the other *minority*.

History and *Geography* go together as we all have neighbours. If we want to understand major events in *world history*, we must know what the *core of any society* is. Nations are made by these values, qualities and properties: *Language and belief*. Beliefs are reflected in that what we call *religion, philosophy or ethics*. Those beliefs are based on certain traditional writings. We

may call them *holy books*. They carry all what we believe in, our basic laws, our virtues and moral rules, our philosophies on life in general. And these main contents are delivered in the language of the people in a certain time.



First, we have to go back in history and find out to which group a certain language belongs and what it has to do with belief. Modern names often blur the real facts. **One Example:** The modern state languages *Portuguese, Spanish, French, Italian, and Romanian* are all daughters of the dead language *Latin* and scientists call them **Romance Languages** (*Latin* had been spoken by the Romans, therefore we call it here just **Roman**). All of them have about 90% of their vocabulary and grammar in common. Their manner of speech might differ, but for an Italian-speaker it takes only a few weeks to learn Spanish or French! **Another example:** The languages *English, Dutch, German, Danish, Swedish, Norse, and Islandic* have one ancestor and we call them **Germanic Languages** and they also have the main vocabulary and grammar in common. It takes a considerably short time to learn the other when you already speak one of them.

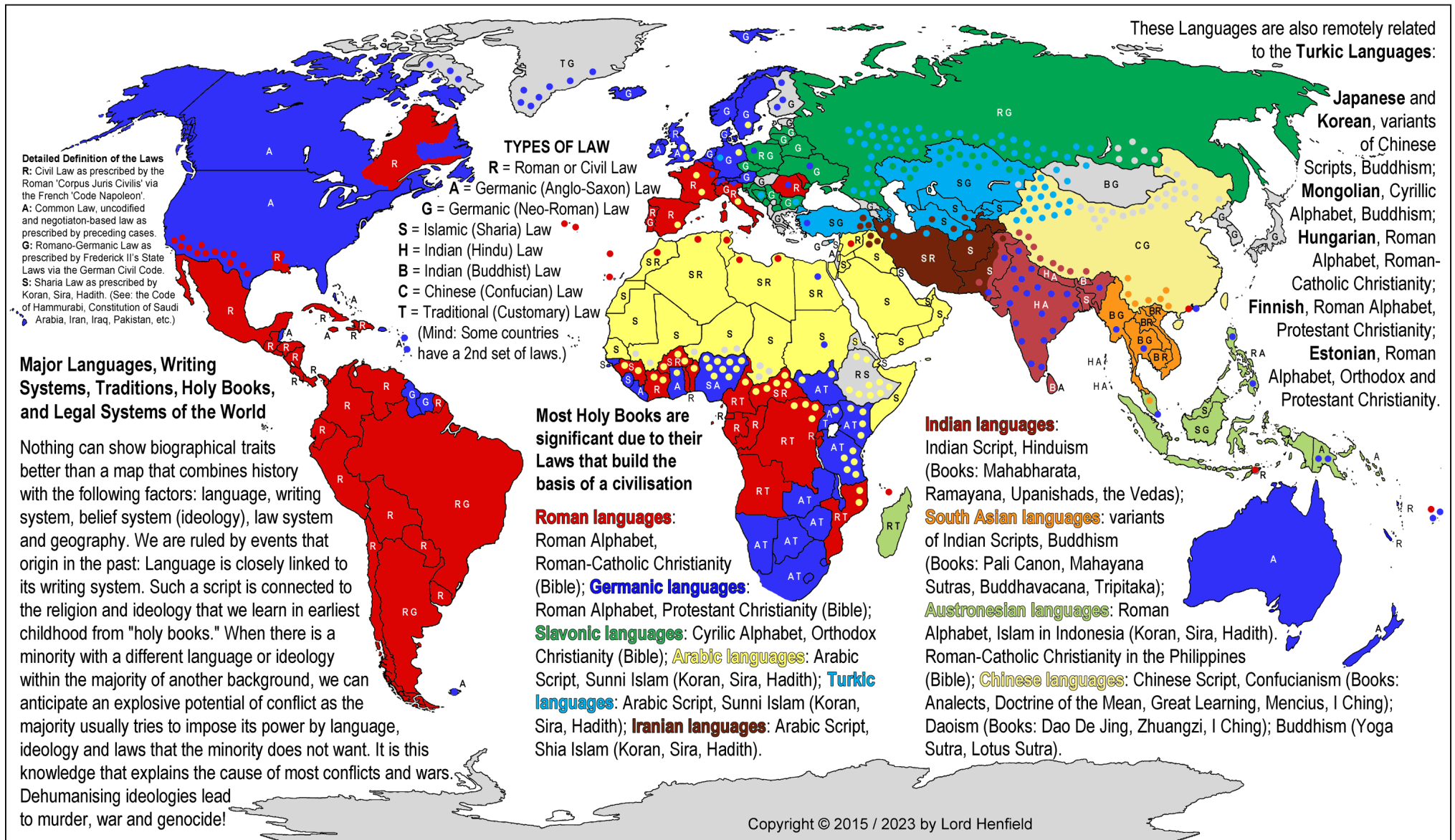
By the beginning of the first millenium, people in Europe began to experience **migration** on an unprecedented scale. Due to climate change and therefore the arrival of the **Huns** (Xiong-nu), thousands of people and even entire nations were on the move. The **German** tribes of the *Goths, Franks* or *Saxons* stormed through Europe towards territories of the **Roman Empire**. At the same time, **Christianity** spread throughout the entire *Roman Empire*, and later, to the regions beyond. So in the first millenium the Germanic people became Christians too. The *Roman Empire* has become too large to be ruled smoothly by only one government. In about AD 300, the Romans decided to split their government in two, in a West and an East government. That worked well for about 100 years until crucial events tore West and East apart.

Lots of Germans served in the Roman Army, admired the Roman way of life, learnt about Roman achievements, took on Roman habits and laws. Whilst the *Huns* pushed them from the East into the territories of the **Western Roman Empire**. Romans and Germans together defeated and annihilated the *Huns* in about 470, and those Germans felt now entitled to take over the weakened *Western Roman Empire*. Here, they built their own Kingdoms and the Empire in the West ceased to exist, while the **Eastern Roman Empire** fiercely defended its borders against anyone for another 1,000 years. After the fall of the *Western Roman Empire*, each **Germanic state** on its ground, and beyond, gradually lost its power to the **Roman-Catholic Church**. No king or government was really able to act freely without the consent of the **Pope** in Rome, the mighty leader of the *Roman Church* in the West. The **Christianity of the East** spread its religion, its **Greek language** and culture from *Constantinople* over all its territory and with the **Slavonic** people it went to a land which we later call **Russia**.

The rise of the **Islam** in the 6th century was the main reason why the Western European nations lost contact to China that was established between the *Chinese Han Dynasty* and the *Roman Empire*. In 1453, the declining *Eastern Roman Empire* was crushed by the Turks and their religion of Islam. The rise of *Islam* was the major reason why Western explorers, such as *Ferdinand Magellan, Vasco da Gama* and *Christopher Columbus*, as well as Eastern explorers, such as *Admiral Zheng He*, tried to establish those old contacts again. They simply wanted to go round the Islamic powers who blocked the **Silk Road** and charged too high a tax so that business with them and through them became worthless for the western European merchants.

LORD HENFIELD'S GENERAL MAP OF LANGUAGE AND CULTURE FAMILIES

SHOWING THE EXTENT OF MAJOR LANGUAGES, WRITING SYSTEMS, BELIEF SYSTEMS AND LAWS OF THE WORLD



Learning about history does not only show us the past but also a vague outlook into a possible future. Look at this little list and you will get an idea what could lie ahead: **Regions with potential religious conflicts:** Northern Ireland, Scotland, southern France, southern Spain, Bosnia, Macedonia, the Caucasus, Lebanon, Iraq, Uzbekistan, Western China, Korea, north-western India, Nigeria, Chad, Mali, Congo, the Philippines. **Regions with potential language and ethnic conflicts:** Belgium, eastern Spain, northern Italy, eastern Turkey, northern Iran, northern Iraq, southern Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan, Afghanistan, Pakistan, South-east Asia, Burma, Borneo, Nepal, western China, Taiwan, East Timor, north-western India, southern India, Bolivia, Mexico, South Africa, eastern Canada, the south-west of the United States.

When **Johannes Gutenberg** introduced his highly effective printing system in 1450, he turned the old order of the successor-states on the territory of the former *Western Roman Empire* upside-down. The **Renaissance** began. This was the time when the **Germanic people** rose up in **protest** against the *Roman-Catholic Church* due to her rampant corruption but in particular against her stubborn rejection to allow the main book of all Christians, the **Bible**, to be published in the *languages of the Germanic peoples*. Up to then, the Bible was only published in Latin, the Roman language. The Roman-speaking people did not protest as they did not need a translation. Most Spanish, French or Italian speaking people still could understand Latin somehow. The Germanic people on the other hand were not willing to accept the ban of their Bible translations (by *John Wycliffe*, *Martin Luther* and *William Tyndal*) as they passionately wished to read **the Word of God** for themselves. By about 1550 they founded their own Protestant Churches and faced the onslaught of the Armies of the Roman Church. Religious wars were fought in Europe that lasted 100 years and cost millions of lives. In the End, no-one could win. And this is the Western world as we have it today: A Status Quo.

Since this time, and throughout the whole **time of colonisation**, the Western World is shared between the Roman and the Germanic culture. As the English language has absorbed a huge amount of Roman words, it represents both cultures in some ways. We can even dare to say that both, the Roman and Germanic cultures, are Roman as both have their foundation based on the old Roman Empire, its language, its alphabetical writing system, its literature, its philosophy and laws, its architecture, and its culture in general.

Generally spoken, the today's World is shared among five main groups: 1st: **Roman-speaking** people who follow the **Western Roman religion** (whose Roman-Catholicism is based on the Bible written in the Roman language and with letters of the Roman Alphabet), 2nd: **Germanic-speaking** peoples who are members of a **Protestant Church** at the most (whose beliefs are based on the Roman Bible and which is written with letters of the Roman Alphabet), 3rd: **Slavonic people**, **Greeks** and others in the **East** who often follow the **Eastern Roman belief** (whose Orthodox Christianity is based on the Bible written in Greek and Slavonic languages and with Greek or Cyrillic letters). 4th: **Arabic**, **Iranian** and **Turkic-speaking** people who mainly follow the **Islam** (whose holy book, the Koran, is written only in Arabic Script and language), and 5th: most people who speak a **southern or eastern Asian language** may be **Hinduists**, **Buddhists** or followers of the teachings of **Confucius** (whose society ethics are based on their languages and writing systems). The greatest difference between China and the rest of the world may lie the fact that China never had any kind of state religion.

We all can estimate one another more highly when we understand not only the differences but also what we all have in common: We all share the universal ethics and virtues **Wisdom**, **Courage**, **Justice**, as well as **Moderation** and we all share the contents of the **Five Precepts** or **Ten Commandments** which are in all of our holy books and can be expressed with **The Golden Rule** "We should treat others as we would like others to treat us". Our ancestors left us this remarkable heritage. It is on us to understand this message from the past as an invitation to live and work together and to strive for a peaceful future.

What Exactly Is The English Language?

English is a West Germanic language that was first spoken in England since the 5th century. Up to that point, the native population in *Roman Britain* had spoken *Celtic* languages that were then pushed by English to the margins of the British Isles. English got its name from one of the Germanic tribes, the **Angles**, that came to England. The Angles came from the **Anglia** area (Angeln) near Flensburg in Northern Germany. The names *England* (from **Anglaland** "Land of the Angles") and *English* derived from the Old English name **Anglisc** or **Englisc** of this tribe—although *Saxons*, *Jutes* and a range of other *Germanic* peoples also moved to Britain. English is closely related to the Frisian, Dutch and Low German languages, but its vocabulary has been significantly influenced by Norse and Danish (the Germanic Viking languages), as well as by Roman / Latin and the *Romance* language French.

Significance In The World

English is the third most widely spoken native language in the world, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. Modern English spread beyond the *British Isles* with the growth of the British Empire, and by the late 19th century its reach was truly global. Following the British colonisation of North America, it became the dominant language in the United States and in Canada. The growing economic and cultural influence of the United States and her status as a global superpower since World War II has significantly accelerated the language's spread across the planet. A working knowledge of English has become a requirement in a number of fields, occupations and professions such

as medicine, engineering and computing. As a consequence, over 2000 million people use or speak English as second language now. It is widely learnt as a second language and used as an official language in many areas, countries and world organisations such as the United Nations.

1600 Years Of Development

English, as *Anglo-Saxon* dialects, was brought to *Britain* after the fall of the Western Roman Empire in the early 5th century by Germanic settlers from various parts of what is now northwest *Germany*, *Denmark* and *the Netherlands*. *Old English* (Anglo-Saxon) was later transformed by two waves of invasion. The first was by speakers of the *North Germanic language* branch when the *Vikings* started the conquering and colonisation of northern parts of the British Isles in the 8th and 9th centuries. (At that time the Vikings also settled in northern France, but here they adopted the *Old French* language. Those people were called "*Normans*" "men from the north" and this gave their new homeland its name: Normandy.) Modern English grammar is the result of the clash of the two Germanic languages *Anglo-Saxon* and *Norse* which were very similar in vocabulary, but the words often had identical endings with diverse meanings. This made the endings useless and caused misunderstanding. The people began to *drop the endings* and *used prepositions instead*. This process, that took about two or three generations, gradually changed Old English from a typical Indo-European language with a rich *inflectional morphology* and relatively free word order, to a mostly *analytic language* with little inflection, a fairly fixed SVO word order and a complex syntax. More

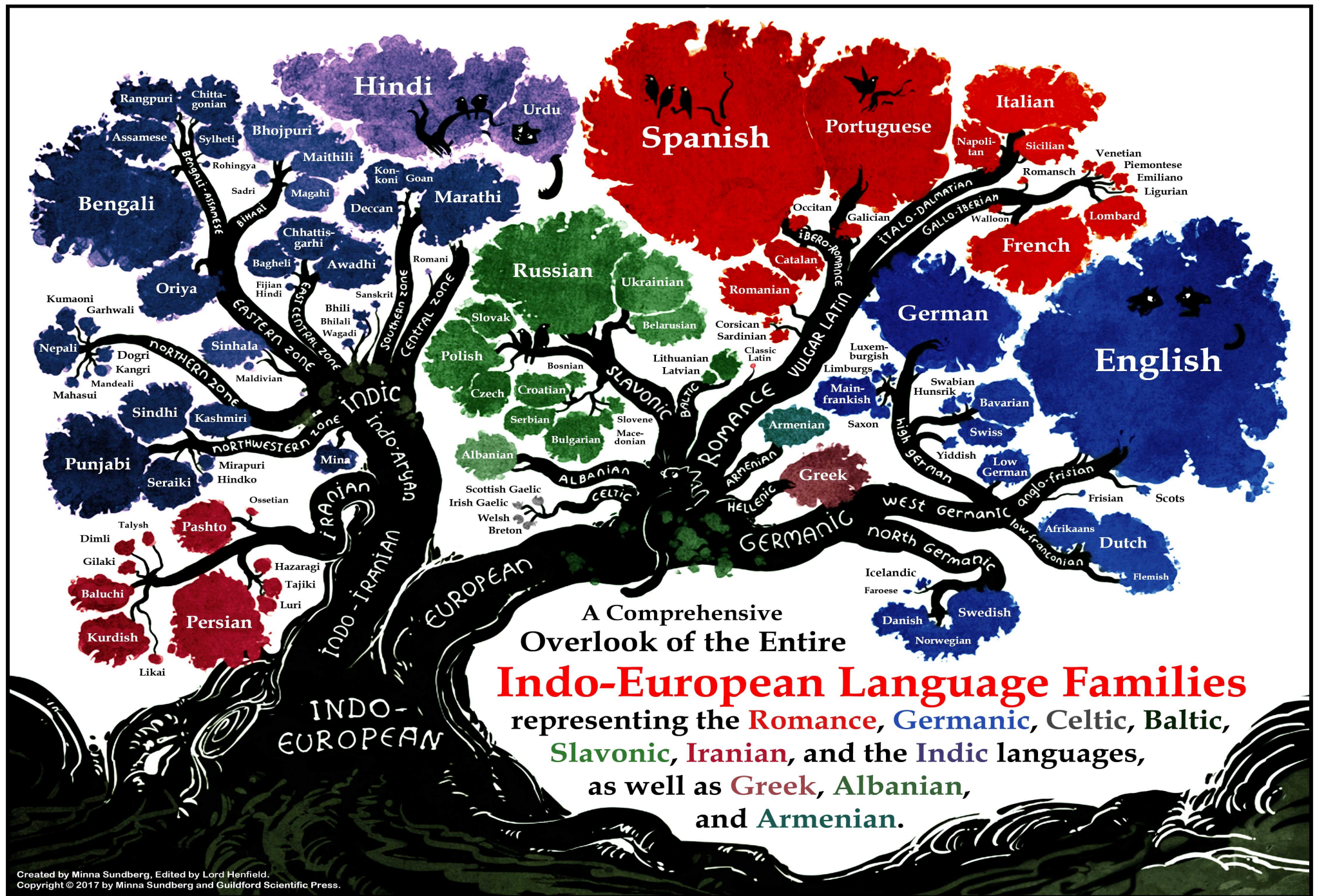
than other languages, Modern English relies on Helper Verbs and word order for the expression of complex tenses, aspect and mood, as well as passive constructions, interrogatives and some negation.

The second great change was caused by the Romance language *Old French* that came with the *Norman conquest* to England in the 11th century. During the next 300 years, four main languages existed alongside each other in England: *Latin*, the language of the Church, then a mix of *Old-English* and the *Viking language*, as well as *Norman Old-French*. The Norman Old-French language introduced in this time a layer of words, especially via the courts and government. Vocabulary and spelling conventions began to give the superficial appearance of a close relationship with Romance languages to what had now become *Middle English*, the language of Geoffrey Chaucer.

The third big change came in the 15th century. Throughout a time that lasted for about 1000 years, from the fall of the western part of the *Roman Empire* to the *Renaissance*, the Latin language remained the *lingua franca* of European intellectual life and the Church. *Classic Latin*, the language of Livius, Cicero and other famous writers died during the expansion of the Roman Empire as the living language of the people. The spoken language of the Roman people was already at Julius Caesar's time so different from *Classic Latin* as Ancient Chinese of the Tang Dynasty was from modern Mandarin Chinese. The people spoke a kind of *Vulgar-Latin* that was to become Italian, Romanian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French. Nonetheless, Classic Latin was the common language of the powerful *Roman Catholic Church* and continued to be the most important Language in writing.

Most books published by the church were in Latin. Hundreds of scribes copied each volume by hand. The invention of the *movable type printing* process by *Johannes Gutenberg* changed all this. Books could be copied rapidly now and became cheaper. The people began to print Books in their own language. The Church lost its power by these events and the Latin language was doomed. From now on, Latin had to play a new role, it was used as *reservoir* for new words. In all *European languages*, new words from *Latin* were borrowed in order to refer to things or concepts for which there was no existing word in the native languages. Another historical event was the so-called "*Great Sound Shift*" in the 15th century that marks the emergence of *Modern English* from *Middle English*. In this period, the vowels and many consonants changed their sounds, but the spelling remained the old one. This explains the great difference between writing and speaking. A true spelling reform – that would deserve this name – has never taken place. The modern English orthography, which includes the works of *William Shakespeare* and the *King James Bible*, is generally dated from about 1550, and when the United Kingdom became a colonial power, English served as the *lingua franca* in all the colonies of the British Empire.

In the 20th century, after the *colonial period*, some of the newly created nations, which had several native languages, continued to use English as a unifying language to avoid political difficulties. As a result of the growth of the British Empire, English was adopted in North America, India, Africa, Australia and many other regions, a trend that extended with the emergence of the United States as a superpower during World War I and II.



Origin Of The Vocabulary

The English vocabulary has changed considerably over the centuries. English can trace back its origin through the Germanic branch to a *Proto-Indo-European* language which was also the ancestor of Latin and Greek. Such words include the basic Pronouns *I*, from Old English *ic*, (German *ich*, Gothic *ik*, Latin *ego*, Greek *ego*), *me* (German *mich*, *mir*, Gothic *mik*, *mis*, Latin *me*, Greek *eme*), numbers (e.g. *one*, *two*, *three*, Dutch *een*, *twee*, *drie*, German *eins*, *zwei*, *drei*, Gothic *ains*, *twai*, *threis* (preis), Latin *unus*, *duo*, *tres*, Greek *oinos*, *duo*, *treis*), common family relationships such as *mother*, *father*, *brother*, *sister*, etc. (German *mutter*, Dutch *moeder*, Greek *meter*, Latin *mater*), names of many animals (German *maus*, Dutch *muís*, Sanskrit *mus*, Greek *mus*, Latin *mus*; English *mouse*), and many common Verbs (Old High German *knajan*, Old Norse *kna*, Greek *gignomi*, Latin *gnoscere*, English *know*).

Germanic words in English tend to be shorter than *Latin* words, and they remain to be more common in ordinary speech. They include nearly all the basic Pronouns, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Modal Verbs etc. that form the basis of English *syntax* and grammar. In the period of *Middle English* a lot of these words became shorter within their *stem* (e.g. Old-English *heafod* > Modern English *head*, Old-English *sawol* > Modern English *soul*) and they lost their final syllables because they had become so similar that they could not convey a distinguished meaning any longer. Independent Prepositions took over their place. This is the reason why Germanic words appear to be shorter than words of Latin origin.

By losing their endings the Old English words also lost their ability to produce new word creations on their own. And this is the main reason why English took on many French words after the Norman Conquest. Most of the Old English words devoted to literature, arts, and science ceased to be productive when they fell into disuse. Only the shorter, more direct, words of Old English tended to pass into the Modern language. Consequently, those words which are regarded as *elegant* or *educated* in Modern English are usually from French or Latin. However, the excessive use of *Latinate* words is considered at times to be either *pretentious* or an attempt to *obfuscate* an issue.

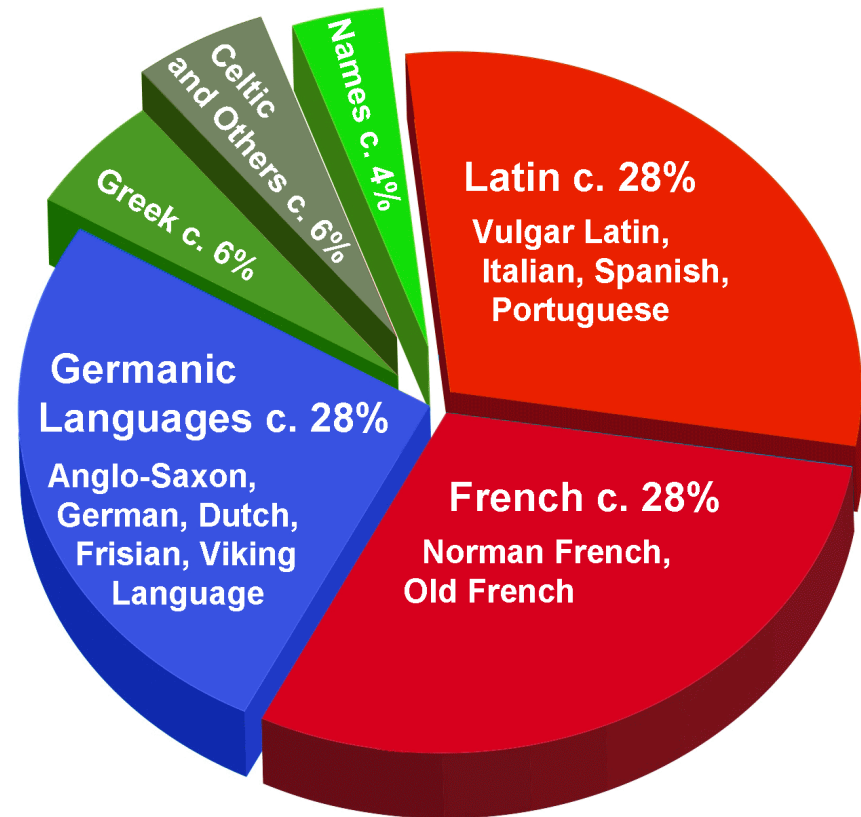
An English speaker is in many cases able to choose between *Germanic* and *Latinate synonyms*: *come* or *arrive*; *sight* or *vision*; *freedom* or *liberty*. In some cases, there is a choice between a Germanic derived word (*oversee*), a Latin derived word (*supervise*), and a French word derived from the same Latin word (*survey*); or even words derived from *Norman* French (e.g., *warranty*) and *Parisian* French (*guarantee*), and even choices involving multiple Germanic and Latinate sources are possible: *sickness* (Old English), *ill* (Old Norse), *infirmity* (French), *affliction* (Latin). Such synonyms *harbour* a variety of *different meanings* and *nuances*.

The words in matters of *cuisine* are often not *interchangeable*. The Nouns for meats are commonly different from, and unrelated to, those for the living animal commonly having a Germanic name and the meat having a French-derived name. Examples include: *deer* and *venison*; *cow* and *beef*; *swine* / *pig* and *pork*; and *sheep* / *lamb* and *mutton*. This is a result of the aftermath of the Norman conquest of England,

where the French-speaking Norman elite were the consumers and went to the English speaking Anglo-Saxon producers, shops and markets to buy meat, of course, by talking in French.

There are Roman words that we use in everyday speech and no longer appear Roman to us anymore. Oftentimes they have no Germanic equivalents. For instance, the words *mountain*, *valley*, *river*, *aunt*, *uncle*, *move*, *use*, *push* and *stay* ("to remain") are Roman. Likewise, the inverse can occur: *acknowledge*, *meaningful*, *understanding*, *mindful*, *behaviour*, *forbearance*, *behoove*, *forestall*, *allay*, *rhyme*, *starvation*, *embodiment* come from Anglo-Saxon, and *allegiance*, *abandonment*, *debutant*, *feudalism*, *seizure*, *guarantee*, *disregard*, *wardrobe*, *disenfranchise*, *disarray*, *bandolier*, *bourgeoisie*, *debauchery*, *performance*, *furniture*, *gallantry* are of Germanic origin, usually through the Germanic element in French, so it is oftentimes impossible to know the origin of a word based on its register.

English has a vast vocabulary, and counting exactly how many words it has is impossible. English has so many words because it easily accepts technical terms into common usage and often imports new words and phrases from other languages. Examples of this phenomenon include contemporary words such as *cookie*, *Internet* and *URL* (technical terms), as well as "*genre*", "*kindergarten*", "*lingua franca*" and "*amigo*" (imported words / phrases from French, German, Italian, and Spanish, respectively). In addition, slang often provides new meanings for old words and phrases. In fact, this fluidity is so pronounced that a distinction often needs to be made between formal forms of English and contemporary usage.



This pie-chart shows the origin of the English language in an estimated percentage. The Germanic languages build the inner core of the English language with which we express feelings and things in our daily life. The French vocabulary surrounds that core and is used in high standard language, cuisine, law and government. The Latin and Greek words are mainly in use for everything that has to do with church, education, and science.

Geographical Distribution

Approximately 400 million people in over 60 countries speak English as their first language. Today, English is probably the third largest language by number of native speakers, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. However, when combining native and non-native speakers it is the most frequently spoken language in the world.

Fluent English Speakers per Country (in Numbers)					
	Rank and Country	Population	All English speakers	In (%)	As first language
1	United States	326,000,000	303,000,000	95.5	235,000,000
2	India	1,355,000,000	135,000,000	10.0	230,000
3	Pakistan	212,500,000	90,000,000	45.0	15,800,000
4	Philippines	101,500,000	89,800,000	91.3	37,000
5	Nigeria	186,500,000	79,000,000	45.0	
6	United Kingdom	65,650,000	60,500,000	97.8	54,400,000
7	Germany	82,800,000	56,000,000	70.1	300,000
8	Bangladesh	163,500,000	30,000,000	18.0	700,000
9	Canada	35,160,000	28,800,000	85.6	19,000,000
10	Egypt	83,289,500	28,100,000	35.0	
11	France	65,350,000	23,000,000	39.0	
12	Australia	24,700,000	22,000,000	97.0	15,030,000
13	Ghana	27,000,000	18,000,000	66.7	
14	Thailand	68,900,000	17,200,000	27.1	
15	Italy	60,600,000	17,000,000	34.3	
16	South Africa	55,000,000	16,000,000	30.0	3,950,000
17	Mexico	120,500,000	15,700,000	12.3	
18	Malaysia	32,000,000	15,600,000	62.3	380,000
19	Netherlands	17,165,000	15,500,000	90.1	
26	China	1,403,000,000	12,000,000	<1	

The countries with the highest populations of native English speakers are, in descending order: *United States* (235 million), *United Kingdom* (54 million), *Canada* (19 million), *Australia* (15 million), *Ireland* (4.2 million), *New Zealand* (3.96 million), and *South Africa* (3.95 million). Countries such as the *Philippines*, *Jamaica* and *Germany* also have native speakers of several different dialects ranging from an English creole to a standard version of English. Of those nations where English is spoken as a second language, *India* has the most such speakers ("Indian English").

Countries Where English Is A Major Language

English is the primary language in Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, the British Indian Ocean Territory, the British Virgin Islands, Canada, the Cayman Islands, Dominica, the Falkland Islands, Gibraltar, Grenada, Guam, Guernsey, Guyana, Ireland, the Isle of Man, Jamaica, Jersey, Montserrat, Nauru, New Zealand, Pitcairn Islands, Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Singapore, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, the United Kingdom and the United States.

English is not an official language in either the United States or the United Kingdom. Although the United States federal government has no official languages, English has been given official status by 30 of the 50 state governments. English is also an important language in several former colonies and protectorates of the United Kingdom,

such as Bahrain, *Bangladesh*, Brunei, Cyprus, *Malaysia*, *Pakistan*, and the United Arab Emirates. English is not an official language of Israel, but is taken as a required second language at all schools and therefore widely spoken.

English As A Global Language

Because English is so widely spoken, it has often been referred to as the “world language” of the modern era, although it has no official status in most countries, it is currently the language most often taught as a foreign language. Some linguists believe that it is no longer the exclusive cultural property of “native English speakers”, but is rather a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it continues to grow. It is, by international treaty, the official language for aerial and maritime communications. English is an official language of many international organisations and the main language of business.

English is the language most often studied as a foreign language in Europe, by 89% of schoolchildren, ahead of French at 32%, while the perception of the usefulness of foreign languages is about 70% in favour of English ahead of 25% for French or German. The following facts may surprise some readers: In some non-English speaking countries, a large percentage of the population are fluent in English – in particular: around 90% in *Norway*, *Sweden*, *Denmark*, *the Netherlands*, and about 70% in *Germany*, *Austria* and *Finland*. English education rank highest in these countries. Their university courses in are run in English. In Germany, curricula of science and engineering have the highest quality with the lowest costs and fees.

Fluent English Speakers per Country (in Percentage)					
	Rank and Country	Population	All English speakers	In (%)	As first language
1	Republic of Ireland	4,762,000	4,450,000	98.4	4,230,000
2	New Zealand	4,828,000	4,670,000	97.8	3,960,000
3	United Kingdom	65,650,000	60,500,000	97.8	54,400,000
4	Jamaica	2,880,000	2,700,000	97.6	47,000
5	Australia	24,700,000	22,000,000	97.0	15,030,000
6	United States	326,000,000	303,000,000	95.5	235,000,000
7	Philippines	101,500,000	89,800,000	91.3	37,000
8	Netherlands	17,165,000	15,500,000	90.1	
9	Norway	5,267,000	4,850,000	90.0	
10	Guyana	774,000	696,000	89.7	660,000
11	Trinidad & Tobago	1,353,000	1,215,000	87.8	1,150,000
12	Denmark	5,748,000	4,940,000	86.0	
13	Sweden	10,066,000	8,400,000	86.0	
14	Canada	35,160,000	28,800,000	85.6	19,000,000
15	Israel	7,303,000	6,205,000	85.1	100,000
16	Sierra Leone	5,866,000	4,900,000	83.5	500,000
17	Singapore	5,607,500	4,234,000	83.1	1,882,000
18	Liberia	3,750,000	3,100,000	82.6	600,000
19	Germany	82,500,000	56,000,000	70.1	300,000
124	China	1,403,000,000	12,000,000	<1	

Books, magazines, and newspapers written in English are available in many countries around the world, and English is the most commonly used language in the sciences with an estimation that 95% of all articles are written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries. It is believed that now a lot more than half of the World's publications in English are written by authors whose native language is not English.

The Differences Between English And Chinese

General: There is not one single Chinese language, but many different versions or dialects including *Wu*, *Cantonese* and *Taiwanese*. Northern Chinese, also known as *Mandarin*, is the mother tongue of about 70% of Chinese speakers and is the accepted written language for all Chinese. Belonging to two different language families, English and Chinese have many significant differences. This makes learning English a serious challenge for Chinese native speakers, and the other way round, learning Chinese a serious challenge for western people.

Alphabet: The Chinese languages do not have an *alphabet* but use a *logographic* system for their writing. In logographic systems symbols represent the words themselves - words are not made up of various letters as in alphabetic systems. Because of this fundamental difference, Chinese learners may have great difficulty reading English texts and spelling words correctly.

Orthography: The writing of sounds, when Chinese use *Pinyin*, is pretty much straight forward and regular like in Spanish or German. It is phonetic while the English spelling is almost *anti-phonetic*. Spoken English has changed during the last 600 years, but not the *spelling*. This causes the trouble that speaking and writing often do not match in English. Therefore, encountering any new English word is a serious challenge for any learner, not only for Chinese students. There are so many rules to tackle this problem that they almost become useless.

Phonology: Most aspects of the English *phonological system* cause difficulties for Chinese learners. Some English *phonemes* do not exist in Chinese; *stress* and *intonation* patterns are different. Unlike English, Chinese is a *tone* language. This means that it uses the *pitch* (highness or lowness) of a *phoneme sound* to distinguish word meaning. In Chinese, each vowel can have 5 different tones. In English, changes in pitch are used to *emphasise* or express emotion, not to give a different word meaning to the sound.

English has more *vowel sounds* than Chinese as well as long and short vowel sounds, a feature that does not exist in Chinese, resulting in the faulty *pronunciation* of words like *ship/sheep*, *it/eat*, *full/fool*. *diphthongs* such as in *weigh*, *now* or *deer* are often shortened to a single sound. Chinese learners find it difficult to hear the difference between l and r, and so may mispronounce *rake* and *rice* as *lake* and *lice*. Southern Chinese speakers have a similar difficulty in distinguishing l and n. The difficulties of pronouncing individual English words, compounded by problems with intonation, result in the heavily accented English of many Chinese learners. In some cases, even learners with perfect grammar may be very hard to understand. A major problem is with the common final *Consonant* in English. This feature is much less frequent in Chinese and results in learners either failing to produce the Consonant or adding an extra Vowel at the end of the word. For example, *bill* may be pronounced as *bille* or *biller*.

Western learners of Chinese, on the other hand, have difficulties to hear the differences between Chinese tones and even more to speak and memorise them.

Chinese learners are overwhelmed by the vast quantity of *syllables* in English. The English language possesses over 15,000 different syllables, while the entire Mandarin Chinese vocabulary is based on only 413 syllables (with all tones it is about 1,200)!

Grammar – Declination, Conjugation: If Chinese words ever had endings, they lost them a long time ago. There is one exception: The Personal Pronouns have traces of *declination* with their plural ending 们 (*men*) and the possessive ending 的 (*de*). The plural ending is sometimes in use for people: 人们 *renmen* = people, 孩子们 *haizimen* = children, 女士们 先生们 *nüshimen xianshengmen* = Ladies and Gentlemen. The little word 的 (*de*) is often used as a genitive indicator like our “*of*” as in the *United States of America* or *the book of my brother* meaning *my brother's book*. During the last 1600 years, English words lost many endings but not all of them (the s-Ending on Verbs in the 3rd Person Singular is such a relict). So, if you have to explain why an English word can have different forms, you can use the Chinese Personal Pronoun as an example to explain why.

Grammar – Verb Tense: In English, much information is carried by the use of *Auxiliaries* and Verb *inflections*: is/are/were, eat/eats/ate/eaten, etc. Chinese, on the other hand, is an uninflected language and conveys meaning through *word order*, *Adverbials* or shared understanding of the context. The concept of time in Chinese is not handled through the use of different tenses and verb forms, as it is in English. Chinese simply add time Adverbs such as “today, some time ago, soon, lately, next year” to the general verb expression. For all these reasons it is not surprising that Chinese learners have trouble

with the complexities of the English Verb system. In one sentence: The dominating feature of the Chinese language is the *word order*, while the English sentence is based on the *Verb* and its *tenses*!

English commonly expresses shades of meaning with Modal Verbs. Think for example of the increasing degree of politeness of the following instructions: *Open the window, please! Could you open the window, please? Would you mind opening the window, please?* Since Chinese modals do not convey such a wide range of meaning, Chinese learners may fail to use English modals sufficiently. This can result in them seeming impolite or even peremptory when making requests or suggestions although they never mean to.

Grammar - Other: The Chinese language has no *Articles*, so difficulties with their correct use in English are very common.

There are also differences in *word order* between Chinese and English. In Chinese, for example, questions are conveyed by a special sentence ending; Subject and Verb are not inverted as in English. Nouns cannot be post-modified as in English; and *Adverbials* usually precede Verbs, unlike in English which has complex rules governing the position of such sentence elements. Interference from Chinese, lead to the following problems of word order:

1. When you are going home? or: When are you going home?
2. Next week I will return to China. or rather: I will return to China next week.

Which one is correct? The 1st or the 2nd one? or none or all of them? (Solution: 1.: the 2nd one; 2.: the 1st and the 2nd one!)

Grammar – Sentence Structure: Although the sentence structures of Chinese and English share a lot of similarities, there is one kind of sentence Chinese students seem to fight hopeless battles with: The *Relative Clause*. This type of clause, as well as the *Relative Pronouns* used with it, are unknown in Chinese. A sentence like “*The girl who sits in the corner reads a book*” would be formulated in Chinese in a manner such as this: “*There sits a girl in the corner and reads a book*”.

Vocabulary, Usage: English has a number of short Verbs that very commonly combine with particles (Adverbs or Prepositions) to form what are known as *Phrasal Verbs*; for example: **take on, give in, make do with, look up to**. This kind of lexical feature does not exist in Chinese. Chinese learners may, therefore, experience serious difficulties in comprehending texts containing such Phrasal Verbs and avoid attempting to use them themselves,

Vocabulary, Word Building: English has become an “*absorbing language*”. Only a small amount of words are created from its own word stock. English speakers rather tend to take over new words from other languages. Chinese, on the other hand, behaves much more like German. Chinese speakers hardly use words from foreign languages but create new words from the Chinese vocabulary only. A word such as “*pentagon*”, which comes from the Greek language, is in German expressed as a “*Fünfeck*” (literally: five-corner”, in Chinese it has the equivalent “*fivesider*”. By most Chinese students, English is considered rather illogical and absurd, simply because we do not only take on words from foreign languages, but also their grammatical rules. And this makes the English language even more confusing!

Diverse Distribution Of Words In English and Chinese

The general “behaviour” of English causes a huge problem. English is an “*absorbing language*”. Like a sponge, it takes on numerous words from foreign languages. Chinese, on the other hand is an “*isolating language*”. That means, Chinese does not absorb any words from foreign languages when they do not absolutely fit into their rigid “413-syllable system”! In consequence, it means that a Chinese learner has to learn all sorts of names in English as well, while speakers of Spanish, German, Russian or any other western language share most geographical names, to some extent names for persons, the international vocabulary of science, commerce and culture. They even share the very same word stems, prefixes and suffixes so that a Dutch speaker, for instance, can at least guess what the word or name of another European language probably means. No wonder that a speaker of German or Scandinavian can learn English in one or two years, a speaker of Spanish or Italian in two or three years, but a very determined speaker of Chinese needs about six or seven years at school to reach the same level of command.

All these are reasons why we focus in this book mainly on the problematic issues. Here you will find the information which you might not find in a normal English course book. Here I shall show you how to shorten the time of learning. Any time we learn a new language we should make sure that we absolutely understand all meanings of all keywords. The keywords are: *Pronouns, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Articles* and other *Determiners, Auxiliary Verbs*, and *Adverbs*. Let me give you some useful facts about Chinese first:

Common Usage Misconceptions In English

I think, in this place it makes sense to do well away with some widespread modern beliefs about English language usage that clearly can be identified as myths or misconceptions, because they produce an unnecessary burden to any learner. With no authoritative language academy, such as in French or German, English is not a language guided by any government organisation. Therefore, guidance on English language usage can come from many sources. This can create problems: Teachers and textbook writers often invent rules which their students and readers repeat and perpetuate. These rules are usually statements about English usage which the authors imagine to be, as a rule, true. But statements of this kind are extremely difficult to formulate both simply and accurately. They are rarely altogether true; often only partially true; sometimes contradicted by usage itself.

Misconceptions in Grammar

Misconception: The English Verb has 8, 9, 12 or 13 tenses. That is absolute nonsense! As the English Verb is based on **2** forms (Present and Past), there are always the *Present*, *Past*, *Future* (will) AND *Future in the Past* (would) tenses in an Aspect: That is **4** tenses in the *Simple*, **4** in the *Simple Continuous*, **4** in the *Perfect*, and **4** in the *Perfect Continuous* Aspects = **16**. So there are 16 tenses in the Active Voice but also 16 in the Passive Voice = **32**. True is that an **Intransitive Verb** (a Verb that has no Object) **can build 16 tenses in the Active Voice only** and a **Transitive Verb** (a Verb that can have an Object) **can build all 32 tenses**. And this is a fact!

Misconception: A sentence must not end in a Preposition. This is one of the most stupid and repeatedly taught “grammar rules” although nearly all grammarians agree that it is fine to end sentences with Prepositions, at least in some cases. *Fowler’s Modern English Usage* says that “One of the most persistent myths about Prepositions in English is that they properly belong before the word or words they govern and should not be placed at the end of a clause or sentence.” Preposition stranding was in use long before any English speakers considered it to be incorrect. This idea probably appeared in the 17th century when some people tried to discipline the English language by confine it into a corset of ridiculous rules and it is still taught in schools today. It is a fact of real life that it is perfectly natural to put a Preposition at the end of a sentence, and it has been since Anglo-Saxon times. Great literature from *Geoffrey Chaucer* and *William Shakespeare* to the *King James version of the Bible* is full of so called *terminal Prepositions*. Other grammarians have supported the practice by analogy with Latin, such as Robert Lowth in his 1762 textbook, *A Short Introduction to English Grammar*. The saying “*This is the sort of nonsense up with which I will not put*”, often attributed to Winston Churchill, illustrates the awkwardness that can result from prohibiting sentence-ending Prepositions. Sentences as “*It is all over and done with*” or “*It is company XY I work for*” are in use every day.

Misconception: Infinitives must not be split. In the English language, a *split infinitive* or *cleft infinitive* is a grammatical construction in which a word or phrase divides the *to* and the *bare Infinitive* of the “to-form” of the *Infinitive Verb*. Usually, it is an *Adverb* or *Adverbial Phrase* that comes between *to* and the Verb. A well-known example occurs in the opening sequence of the *Star Trek* television series: “*...to boldly go where no man has gone before*”, the Adverb *boldly* splits the Infinitive

to go. More rarely, more than one word splits the *Infinitive* in a *compound split Infinitive*, as in *The population is expected to more than double in the next ten years*.

As the *split Infinitive* became more common in the 19th century, some grammatical authorities sought to introduce a *prescriptive rule* against it. The construction is still the subject of disagreement among English speakers as to whether it is grammatically correct or good style. However, most modern English usage guides have dropped the objection to the split Infinitive. "There is no such rule against splitting an Infinitive", according to *The Oxford Guide to Plain English*, and "it has never been wrong to split an infinitive. In some cases it might be preferable to split an infinitive".

Misconception: The words "and" and "but" must not begin a sentence.

There is a widespread belief – one with no historical or grammatical foundation – that it is an error to begin a sentence with a Conjunction such as "and", "but", or "so". Grammarians and teachers who impose this rule are following a false "rule" as it was never used historically. In fact, a substantial percentage (often as many as 10 percent) of the sentences in first-rate writing begin with conjunctions. It has been so for centuries, and even the most conservative grammarians have followed this practice.

Regarding the word "and", *Fowler's Modern English Usage* states, "There is a persistent belief that it is improper to begin a sentence with And, but this prohibition has been cheerfully ignored by standard authors from Anglo-Saxon times onwards." The word "but" suffers from similar misconceptions. The widespread public belief that "but" should not be used at the beginning of a sentence seems to be unshakeable. Yet it has no foundation. Just have a look into the Bible.

There you will find thousands of sentences that begin like "*And Jesus said ...*"

Misconception: The Passive Voice is incorrect. An English myth is that the Passive Voice is always incorrect and some "writing tutors" believe that the Passive Voice is to be avoided in all cases. Some people talk about the Passive Voice without knowing exactly what it is. In fact, the Passive Voice is a correct tense form and even very useful as we can hide who is responsible for an action. The sentence "My mother cleans the window" in the Active Voice is in the Passive Voice "The window is cleaned (by my mother)". The acting part "by my mother" can be left out. This fact makes this tense form so valuable for politicians and business people. True is that an Intransitive Verb (a Verb that has no Object) cannot form the Passive Voice!

Misconception: Using double negatives is always bad English. This also is one of the false or "worn-out rules". Using double negatives (such as "I didn't do nothing") can be confusing, and this is the reason why some grammarians in the mid-18th century wanted to banish them from usage. They wanted to introduce English to the idea of "formal logic" and some linguists still advise against using double negatives altogether, others would allow the usage of some double negatives such as "It's not inconceivable" or "She's not unappealing".

Whether **the double negative is a positive** constitutes a major difference between the acceptable and unacceptable examples. Some English speakers consider this the criterion for whether a double negative is acceptable, however most speakers use them without any rules. It is not true, as some may assume, that double negatives are always wrong. We can hear them in almost every daily conversation.

Misconceptions in Typography

Misconception: Two spaces must follow each sentence. Placing two word spaces between sentences is a typographic convention used since before the invention of the typewriter that has carried over into the age of digital media. Most style guides recommend only a single space between sentences. Professionally published books, magazines, and newspapers also use a single space between sentences, but even this is widely overlooked.

Misconception: Every paragraph must be indented. An *indentation* (also called *indention* or *indent*) is the leaving space or amount of space left between the margin and the start of an *indented* line, just as the next line. It marks the beginning of a new paragraph:

The function of a paragraph is to mark a pause, setting the paragraph apart from what precedes it. If a paragraph is preceded by a title or subhead, the *indentation* is superfluous and can therefore be omitted. However, when you write your paragraphs, make sure that a reader can see that you made a paragraph, either by *indentation* or just leaving an empty line as a clearly visible gap.

Misconceptions in Usage

Misconception: Paragraphs must comprise at least three sentences. This is an English myth. Most editors state that “no rule exists regarding the number of sentences that make up a paragraph”, noting that professional writers use “paragraphs as short as a single word”. According to the Oxford Guide to Plain English, “If you can say what

you want to say in a single sentence that lacks a direct connexion with any other sentence, just stop there and go on to a new paragraph. There’s no rule against it. A paragraph can be a single sentence, whether long, short, or middling”. Many students define paragraphs in terms of length: a paragraph is a group of at least five sentences, a paragraph is half a page long, etc. Length and appearance do not determine whether a section in a paper is a paragraph. For instance, in some styles of writing, particularly journalistic styles, a paragraph can be just one sentence long.

Now, what then are paragraphs for? Answer: A text is often split into several different blocks. A paragraph is such a block or part of a subdivided text in order to separate ideas, suggestions, examples and distinguished thoughts from others. You may put such a thought in just one sentence, or in more. It is nonetheless only this single line of thought you should make visible to the reader by packing it into one single paragraph.

Misconception: Contractions are not appropriate in proper English. This is one of the “big myths of English usage” and a lot of people still seem to think that Contractions are not proper language. If you do too, you’re quite wrong. Writers such as *Shakespeare*, *Samuel Johnson*, and others since Anglo-Saxon days have been “shrinking English”. Some of the opinion makers in the 17th and 18th century wanted to ban Contractions, but beginning in the 1920s, usage guides have allowed them. Most writing handbooks now recommend Contractions, but there are still lots of traditionalists out there who don’t like them, contributing to the modern myth that Contractions are improper.

A number of writing guides still recommend not to use Contractions in academic and formal writing. I also recommend this, but only for the reason that a student might get a negative mark in their exam papers. What I sharply criticise is that modern school-books often show and practise only Contractions, which leads to the ridiculous fact that students who learn English as a foreign language, do not know the proper forms at all! What I really recommend is that every new learner of English MUST learn and practise the full forms first, just as we native speakers do, quite simply because any particular Contraction can have several different meanings!

Misconception: To a Verb is always connected an Adverb, never an Adjective. So “I feel badly” would be the correct negative response to “How do you feel?” The expression “I feel badly” is often used in English, but it is not usually possible as a meaningful reply to this question because it means “I feel guilty” and implies or often requires an additional continuation with “about...”. Therefore “I feel bad” is the standard English reply, and “I feel badly” is an incorrect hyper-correction by people who think they know better than the masses.

We have quite the same problem with “good” and “well”. The proper response of “How are you” ought to be “I am (very) well, thank you”. However, in spoken English we often can hear the reply “I am good, thank you”. **Note:** *In Chinese, it is the written language which is more powerful than the spoken language. In English it is exactly the other way round. The spoken language rules the writing as we consider the writing only to be the mirror of our speech!*

Misconceptions in Word Meaning; Dialect, Accent

Misconception: “Healthy” has only recently been used to describe food. It is true that the Adjective “healthful” has been pushed out in favour of “healthy” in recent times. But the distinction between the words dates only to the 19th century. Before that, the words were used interchangeably; some examples date to the 16th century. Many argue “*people are healthy*”, but “*vegetables are healthful*”, however, phrases like “*part of a healthy breakfast*” have become so widespread that they are rarely perceived as incorrect except by hyper-correct grammarians.

Misconception: Non-standard, slang, or colloquial words are not real words. For instance, despite appearing as a word in numerous dictionaries, “irregardless” is dismissed as “not a word” in some style guides. All words in English originated by becoming commonly used during a certain time period, thus there are many informal words currently regarded as “incorrect” in formal speech or writing. But the idea that they are somehow not words is a misconception. Examples of words that are sometimes alleged to be “not a word” include “conversate”, “funnest”, “impactful”, “mentee” and “thusly”. All of these appear in numerous dictionaries as English words.

Misconception: “Inflammable” means something that cannot burn. Both words, “flammable” and “inflammable”, mean “*easy to catch on fire*” or “*set in flames*”, and are interchangeable when used of the properties of material. Flammable is, however, preferred for warning labels as there is less likelihood of misunderstanding (inflammable

being sometimes taken to mean “not flammable”, because the Latin prefix *in-* often means *not*). In fact, the word that does mean “*not flammable*” is “*non-flammable*”. **Tip:** When you are not sure about a negative prefix, such as *in-* or *dis-*, just use the good old English Word “*not*” in front of the negative word, because it is always correct.

Misconception: “Nauseous” cannot mean suffering from nausea. Some writers on language, such as Theodore Bernstein and Bill Bryson, have advanced the idea that “nauseous” means only causing nausea (synonymous with “nauseating”) not suffering from it (which would be “nauseated”), and therefore it is incorrect to say “I am nauseous” (unless you mean to say “I inspire nausea in others”). This prescription is contradicted by vast evidence from English usage.

Misconception: “Xmas” is a secular plan to “take the Christ out of Christmas”. The usual suggestion is that “Xmas” is ... an attempt by the ungodly to x-out Jesus and banish religion from the holiday. However, X stands for the Greek letter *chi*, the starting letter of Χριστός (Christos), or “Christ” in Greek. (Also see the related Greek Rho symbol.) The use of the word “Xmas” can be traced to the year 1021 when monks in Great Britain used the X while transcribing classical manuscripts into Old English in place of “Christ”. The Oxford English Dictionary’s first recorded use of “Xmas” for “Christmas” dates back to 1551.

Misconception: Speaking an English dialect or with an accent is wrong. Any language style that is spoken by many people cannot be wrong, because it is the living people who make our language! But ...

Teacher, Beware (Or Become Aware) Of Your Own Speech!

Native English speakers speak always correct English, right? **Wrong!** About 90% of all native English speaker do not speak one of the “standard languages”. Everyone of us speaks with a distinguished Accent. Every person uses certain words or expressions which may not be widely recognised by everyone (slang terms), and each single individual has their own “speech melody” and may speak a particular Dialect. Chinese students have very fine ears as their own language is based on tones. In normal circumstances we would say that high hearing abilities are advantageous. But when learning English, it can be rather confusing for any Chinese learner to hear English-speaking people talking in their own Dialect and with their own Accent.

Speakers of British or Australian origin may *clip* sounds. For example, the *t*-endings of words might be *clipped off* so that words such as *get*, *but*, or *meet* become *ge’*, *bu’* or *mee’*. Instead of speaking the *t*, the speaker tends to abruptly stop the word right before the *t*. American speakers tend to “weaken” the *t* inside of a word so that it becomes a *d* such as in “*water*” which sounds “*wader*” or even “*wo’er*”. There are many more examples that could demonstrate how carelessly we often cripple our words. Any Chinese listener may think, you have just spoken a new word and might check the dictionary for it. I am not telling you to give up your Accent entirely, but, please, do not *mumble*, do not speak too fast and do not shorten words or sentences, even when you think, it might be cool in your hometown! Try to speak as clearly as a newsreader, in a kind of English that could be understood internationally. Please, do it for the sake of your students!

BASIC ENGLISH

Basic English is a systematic helper language that was created in the 1920s by language scientist Charles Kay Ogden of Cambridge University in order to show teachers and students an easier way to teach and learn English. Ogden limited the number of Verbs. As Basic English is intended for quick learning and immediate practical use in commerce, the entire language has been reduced to only 850 words. They are arranged as follows: 100 Operators (direction words, time words, linking words, Pronouns, Adverbs and 13 action Verbs, 3 Helper Verbs, 2 Modal Verbs), 200 Picturable words (Nouns for things), 400 General words (Nouns for intellectual ideas), 150 Quality words (descriptive words or Adjectives). Basic English is a first step into full English and it really works. Basic English has been reformed, or "updated" as we say nowadays, for several times. I am going to show here the most recent version which contains about 1000 words.

Ogden focussed on the main difficulties that learners of the English language have and what the solution for beginners is:

In the English language, there are more than 4000 common Verbs of which are many hundred are unpredictably irregular in their forms. They all can be replaced by only a few "Operator-Verbs". Ogden said on the subject: "Too much attention is given to fixed forms of words, certainly the dead weight of unnecessary words, chiefly 'Verbs whose behaviour is not regular'. And he discovered that English speakers very often re-arrange a Verb sentence such as "I attempted to come", into a phrase like "I made an attempt to come." Strictly speaking, we

often use Verbs only as Nouns. What Ogden did then was this: He selected a minimal set of action Verbs, (come, get, give, go, keep, let, make, put, seem, take; be, do, have; say, see, send, seem; may, will), which could -- in connexion with Direction Words such as "in, out, up, down, on, off, around, away" -- take the place of all the other Verbs in the language. Those Action Verbs and Direction Words are called "Operators" as they do most of the work.

"Directional thinking" is an amazing solution against the employment of too many Verbs. It simply means that learners should focus on Direction Words rather than Verbs. Take, for example, the following funny story about a rat followed by a dog. The story is told by using the conventional Verb technique with almost no direction words:

"The dog *pursued* the rat, *passed* the drain, *crossed* the street, **and** *climbed* the wall; it *entered* the door, *broke* the rules, and *approached* the meat". (7 Verbs)

In fact, the story sounds rather clumsy. Now here is the same story again, but instead of the 7 Verbs used above, this time told with only one Operator Verb (went = go) and the necessary direction words:

"The dog went, *after* the rat, *by* the drain, **across** the street, *over* the wall, *through* the door, *against* the rules, *to* the meat". (7 Direction Words)

The surprising thing is that the second version is not only shorter and better understandable than the first one, but it also sounds much more elegant! This shows us the power of Direction Words. The primary principle of Basic English is based on the elimination of the Verb, a simple trick, which makes a reduced vocabulary possible: This reduces the main difficulty of language-learning to a minimum.

How Does Basic English Grammar Really Work?

We can eliminate or avoid using too many Verbs by replacing them with so-called Phrasal Verbs. It simplifies English in a way you never have imagined. Take the Verb **enter** for example. It clearly means the same as **go in**. That is to say, it can be analysed into the *name of an act or movement* and the *name of a direction or position*. So, to **climb a tree** is to **go up a tree**, and to **descend** it is to **go down**.

As we can see, complicated Verbs can be avoided cleverly. And the best thing is that this usage is not artificial but a natural part of the English language. Native English speakers use the most basic Verbs in combination with other words at all times. We recommend that beginners first learn these **32 fundamental "Operator" Verbs** which cover the essential acts or operations: **be, have, do; will, shall, can, may, must; would, should, could, might, ought to; bring, come, get, give, go, hold, keep, let, look, make, need, pull, push, put, run, say, see, seem, send, set, stay, take, turn.**

Direction Words have a much stronger meaning than the Verbs they accompany. Take one of those simple Verbs ("be", for instance) and see what happens when you connect them with one of these Direction words **across, after, around, at, away, back, by, down, far, in, left, near, off, on, out, over, right, round, to, together, under, up, upon**: "**be** across / after / around / at / away / back / by / down / far / in / near" etc. Instead of "be", we can also choose "get, put, go come". When you check in a dictionary these Verb combinations with "off", you immediately will discover that "be off, get off, put off, go off, come

off" have a very similar meaning. All of them mean "move off". As we see here in the following examples, each of those Verbs, which can express action, has a vast range of meaning:

bring	move, cause; occur, carry, convey, fetch, force, move
come	move towards; appear, originate, approach, enter, occur
do	act, carry out, perform, accomplish, achieve, produce
get	move, act, go, receive, perceive, understand, catch
give	move, deliver, administer, perform, make, do, cause
go	move, proceed, start, enter, lead, follow, die, elapse, expire
hold	have, keep, maintain, remain, engage, support, think, claim
keep	have, retain, store, withhold, reserve, maintain, remain
let	allow, permit, accept, command, order
look	to direct the eyes, face, search, expect, hope, carry out
make	produce, bring into being, cause to exist, carry out, do, cause
need	be in want of, be obliged, require; not need: opposite of must
pull	move / draw towards the source, make, strain
push	force to move away, thrust, drive, press, advance
put	cause to be, place, set, lay, estimate, make, change, switch
run	move / pace / wander / go quickly; perform, grow, trail, flow
say	speak, utter, express, pronounce, enunciate, tell, state, recite
see	to perceive with the eyes, understand, consider, launch, do
seem	to appear to the mind or eye; look, assume, look as if
send	to direct or transmit away, move away, dispatch, forward
set	place in position; adjust, establish, apply, deposit, aim
stay	remain, stop, cause to stop, endure, delay, hinder
take	gain possession of, buy, obtain, receive, make, do, perform
turn	move around an axis, reverse, change, switch, become sour

You can practise this with your students. Find out which combinations might make sense, because with these combinations you give your students one of the most powerful tools of the English language!

Just to refresh your memory, the Verbs **be, have, do** are Full Verbs but also have the function of **Helper Verbs**.

The Verbs **will, shall, can, may, must, would, should, could, might** and **ought to** are **Modal Verbs**, which means that we can express with them different nuances of intentions. They are no Full Verbs. They cannot stand only for themselves but always refer to another Full Verb! There are other Verbs that can be used as Modal Verbs, such as **to be able to, to be allowed to, to be going to, have to, need to, dare to, used to**, etc. Right from the start, beginners have to learn all forms of the Helper and Modal Verbs

Simple Tenses			Participles	
Present	3rd Pers	Past	Present	Past
am, are	is	was, were	being	been
have	has	had	having	had
do	does	did	doing	done
will *	will *	would *	willing	willed
shall *	shall *	should *	-	-
can *	can *	could *	-	-
may *	may *	might *	-	-
must *	must *	-	-	-
-	-	ought (to) *	-	-

Remember: Alternatively, the Simple Present and the Simple Past tense can be formed by the Helper Verbs “do” and “did” + Base form

(or the Simple Present tense or the Infinitive form) of the Verb. We use “do” to emphasise the main Verb and we can use “did” to avoid irregular Past forms. *The Modal Verbs **will, shall, may, can, must** are linked to the Infinitive in the same way, and they describe actions or situations in the “Future”, and **should, would, might, could, ought to** are in use to describe assumptions or to talk about conditions!

Simple Tenses			Participle	
Present*	3rd Pers	Past	Present	Past
bring	brings	brought	bringing	brought
come	comes	came	coming	come
get	gets	got	getting	got
give	gives	gave	giving	given
go	goes	went	going	gone
hold	holds	held	holding	held
keep	keeps	kept	keeping	kept
look	looks	looked	looking	looked
let	lets	let	letting	let
make	makes	made	making	made
need	needs	needed	needing	needed
pull	pulls	pulled	pulling	pulled
push	pushes	pushed	pushing	pushed
put	puts	put	putting	put
run	runs	runned	running	run
say	says	said	saying	said
see	sees	saw	seeing	seen
seem	seems	seemed	seeming	seemed
send	sends	sent	sending	sent
set	sets	set	setting	set
stay	stays	stayed	staying	stayed
take	takes	took	taking	taken
turn	turns	turned	turning	turned

(If you are sensible, you will immediately understand that you can combine “be” with one of those direction words. You will also see that you cannot combine “have” with those directions in most cases, because “have” indicates a possession. But you can combine “have” with other Verbs, Nouns or Adjectives. With these few Verbs above we can express almost all daily actions, and we avoid to search our memory for one of the thousands of specific Verbs!)

The Verbs **get**, **put** and **make** are Full Verbs. However, they have such a wide range of meaning that we can consider them **Magic Verbs**. They can take almost every direction word, many Nouns, phrases and Adjectives. So they (particularly **get**) have almost the quality of Helper and Modal Verbs. Most of the other Operators are simple *Action Verbs*. Together with a Direction Word they become more definite and they too almost gain Magic Verb qualities. In order to make you understand what I really mean, I going to tell you now a little story. Basically it is narrated only with the one Verb "Get":

A Magic One-Verb Story

I **got up** at seven o'clock in the morning, then I **got to** the bathroom. There I **got** myself **washed**, **got** my teeth **brushed** and **got** my hair **combed**. I **got into** my clothes and after that I **got downstairs to get** the breakfast ready. Half an hour later, my aunt **got** the frontdoor of my house **opened**, **got in** with a bottle of yellow lemonade in her hand and **got** her comment to my ears: "You **have got to** try this, it **gets you** feel much better!"

I **got excited** about the delicious taste, **got** my jacket **on** and **got down** the stairs, **out** of the house, **across** the road, **along** the pretty houses, with the vibrating church bell in the background and the noise of the

traffic all around me, **into** the alley, then **into** the building **on** the left-hand side. With great expectations, I **got into** the little supermarket on the first floor, through the narrow aisle with all the shiny bottles, **got** three more bottles of the magic lemonade, and **got** with them to the tills. There I **got out of** the pocket my last money, **got** it **counted** and after a time of waiting in the cue, I **was getting it into** the hand of the cashier so that I **could get** the bottles **into** the bag which she **got** me **from under** her desk. With the receipt and the bag in my hands, I **got out of** the building, **back** into the alley, **along** the pretty houses, **across** the road, **got quickly into** my house, **to get away** from the starting rain, **up** the stairs, **into** the kitchen where I **got** two of the lemonade bottles **into** the fridge while I **was** hastily **getting rid of** the lid of the third bottle in order **to get it to** my mouth. The lemonade **was getting down** my throat with a sparkling fizz in my mouth so that I **got** a ticklish feeling in my nose which **was getting out** in an exploding sneeze. I **got awake** with a thirsty feeling and I **was getting** the thought that all of this I **got in** my sleep was the wishful dream of A Magic Lemonade. **Got** it?

My meek, little story here might not win the Pulitzer Prize but it clearly shows that we do not need lots of Verbs to get a story across.

Teacher's task: Explain to your students all **get-phrases**. Sometimes, the Verb **get** is followed by a Direction Word, sometimes **get** is followed by a **Noun, Past Participle** or a **phrase**.

Student's task: Write a little story on your own by using get-phrases only as seen in my little story here. The story should contain at least five clauses or sentences. Then write a story with **get**, **put**, **do**, **make**.

Next step: Write a story. use **6** out of **12** Verbs: **get**, **put**, **come**, **go**, **give**, **take**, **keep**, **let**, **do**, **make**, **pull**, **push**. Use the **12** Direction words **across**, **along**, **away**, **in(to)**, **out** (of); **on(to)**, **from** (under), **up**(on), **off**, **for**, **by**, **to**.

Teacher's task: Let students write a story every week. Practise!

32 Rules Of Grammar And Usage in Short

It is fact that learners of English are forced to learn too many rules. But it is also fact that learning hundreds of different rules and their countless exceptions kills the learners ability and will to speak English as it is almost impossible to obey each single of those (sometimes ridiculous) rules and not act against another rule by doing so! Therefore Basic English has only a dozen grammar rules and some 20 tricks that enables you to get the most out of the vocabulary. Every student must learn and obey all the following **12 Rules** and should practise all **20 Pieces of Advice** in order to master English efficiently:

12 OBLIGATORY RULES TO FORM WORDS:

1.	Change a Singular Noun into a Plural Noun by adding an "s" to its end. We must use special ways to make a Plural word in English, such as "es" and "ies", (Irregular: man-men , foot-feet , etc.) according to the official rules.
2.	When a Noun has the ending 's, it shows ownership: Linda's book. We also can use "of": The book of Linda. Long names are made with "of" to say what belongs to what: The United States of America.
3.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Positive Article for things we know, recognise or we feel familiar with, is "the": the apple (which I bought). The Positive Article for things we do not know, just any thing, is "a" or "an": a book, an apple (any book or apple). Use these Articles when ever possible. Exception: A Gerund and Nouns in Plural do not need "the". The Negative Article for "the" or "a / an" is "no": We use the Article "no" before Nouns and Adjectives: There is no food. We have no delicious fruits. I have no money.
4.	The pronouns " they, them, their, theirs, themselves " do not only stand for the Plural but also for the Singular "he, she, it" etc. when we do not want to mention the gender or sex of people! I have send them a letter (= I have send her or him a letter).

5.	The word " not " is used before: <i>Articles</i> (we have not a single bread), <i>Pronouns</i> (this is not my book), <i>Adverbs</i> (he is not well prepared), and <i>Verbs</i> (I am not doing that; she does not go to school).
6.	Adjectives can express the negative with " un- ", " in- ", " non- ", " de- " or " dis- ". Note: We can use " not " instead: " unclear " = " not clear", particularly in predicative descriptions: "the view is not clear". We can use non- for some attributive expressions: " <i>he is drinking non-alcoholic beer</i> ".
7.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For positive Comparatives and Superlatives (of Adjectives and Adverbs!), we can use either "-er" and "-est" (for short Adjectives) or "more" and "most" (for Adjectives that have more than 2 syllables): large – larger (than) – (the) largest; beautiful – more beautiful (than) – (the) most beautiful. For a Negative Adjective or Adverb, their Comparative and Superlative, we can say "not" or "less" and "least": not beautiful – less beautiful (than) – (the) least beautiful.
8.	We can use most Verbs as Nouns by adding " -ing ": (the) writing , (the) eating . We call such a Noun "Gerund" and it does not need articles: Swimming is fun. By adding " -ing ", we can use most Verbs also as Adjectives : the swimming bottle, the writing student, the eating woman.
9.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many Adjectives can be turned into Adverbs with the ending "-ly". The ending -ly means "-like". Therefore, we can change Nouns into Adjectives and Adverbs too: "manly" means "manlike"; womanly = womanlike, homely = homelike, etc. When we want to describe things in the form of an Adjective (or as an Adverb!) we also can use "-like" in any case: "It is boxlike" = it looks like a box. Adverbs usually come after the Verb or at the end of the sentence: "She writes quickly a letter" or "She writes a letter quickly". But: The Adverb can stand before the Verb to put emphasis on the Adverb! "She quickly writes a letter". Frequency Adverbs (such as always, often, sometimes, seldom, never) also can stand before a Verb: "<i>He never talks</i>".
10.	If we do not want to mention a particular thing or person, we can use some-, any-, no-, every- to build Indefinite Pronouns with -body, -one, -thing, -where, -how : everybody, someone, no one, anywhere.

11.	With the dictionary form of a Verb we give commands : "stay!", "go!", "take!". We can be more precise by putting Prepositions, Adverbs or Adjectives after the Verb: "stay here!", "Get off!", "Put it on!", "Hand it over!", "Be quiet!" "Come in!", "Let her through!". Be polite: use Please at the beginning or end
12.	<p>The English Verb always can form 4 times: Present, Past, Future, Future in the Past. These times are used in all 4 Aspects: Simple, Simple Continuous, Perfect, Perfect Continuous. We can use only the 16 forms of the Active Voice if the Verb is "intransitive", but we can use also the 16 Passive Voice forms for "transitive verbs", thus 32 Verb tenses in total !</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Irregular Verbs are difficult to remember. Trick: We can express or paraphrase the Past tense by using "did": Say "did seek" instead of "sought". Examples: did sleep, did go, did make, did come, did see, etc. • We express the Future tense by using "will, shall (can, may, must); be going to": "I will seek", "I shall seek", "I am going to seek". But: Never use "be going to" for polite questions. It sounds demanding and rude! • With their past form "would, should, could, might, ought to" we form the Future tense in the Past which is used to form Conditional sentences (if-sentences): "I would leave if I were you!" (Obey Verb tense agreement!)

20 PIECES OF PRACTICAL ADVICE:

1.	Use the words male, female, infant (or baby) to specify the gender of any living being: male cook, female driver, infant crocodile ; male bee, female bee, male infant bee.
2.	Instead of Articles, we can use Positive Pronouns : " this / that " or " these / those "; or " some ". Alternatively, we also can use them in a negative way: " not this / not that " or " not these / not those "; " not any ".
3.	We can change most Adjectives into Positive Nouns by adding " -ness ": fastness, goodness, greatness, lateness, oldness, smallness, shortness, tallness, shyness, ugliness, wellness. Negative : shyness, etc.
4.	It can be difficult to decide if we should use " much " or " many ". Simple Trick: Use " a lot of " or " lots of " or " plenty of " instead. It is always correct: "plenty of water / money / apples / cars / work". The negative: "There is not a lot of work" (not much = little), "There are not plenty of cars" (not many = few).

5.	As for Contractions : Use the full form if you want to be understood correctly. Learn the full forms first as " I'd " can have different meanings: "I had, I should, I would"; " it's " can mean "it is", "it was", "it has". Using full forms is a must in writing!
6.	Use the words " about " or " around " when you deliberately want to be inexact or imprecise : It is about 10 o'clock. Note : Instead of "it is about ten" or " around ten", native speakers also may use the suffix " -ish " and say: "It is tenish " or "ten o'clock ish ". "The shirt is reddish " (blueish etc.) or " somewhat blue".
7.	Use the word " times " (or the ending -fold) to express definite multiplications : His income has increased sixfold (or six times) in the last ten years. Note : It may be advisable to avoid words such as "once / twice / trice". Alternatively, you can use "one time / two times / three times" instead.
8.	The ending " -ward(s) " can be used to say where something or somebody moves to: southwards, northwards, eastwards, westwards; southeastwards; towards, upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards, leftwards, rightwards, inwards, outwards, crosswards. We can do that even with placenames: "We are proceeding / going / moving Londonwards". There is no difference in meaning between " -ward " and " -wards ".
9.	<p>In most languages like Chinese, the Question Tag is always the same: "对吗 dui ma?" It means "correct?", "right?", "true?". In English we use question tags, such as: "is it not?" or "have they not?", or in short: "isn't it?", "haven't they?". Many learners find it difficult to use the correct form.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simple trick to avoid question tags and their answers: In common English we also use the question tags "correct?", "right?", "true?". You always can use this simple trick to provoke an answer by using "correct?", "right?", "true?" or "not correct?", "not right?", "not true?" for the opposite. Many native speakers use even a short "eh?" as positive and negative tag! • Important: The answers also should be: "correct!", "right!", "true!" or "not correct!", "not right!", "not true!" for the opposite. Please NEVER answer with "Yes" or "No", as this answer can mean right the opposite of that what you really mean! "Yes" does not mean "correct!" (对), and "No" does not mean "not correct!" (不对)!

10.	Common Adverbs (<i>diligently, firstly, lastly</i>) can be turned into Nouns: " <i>with diligence, at first, at last</i> ". But attention: The user has to find all equivalents in a dictionary!
11.	We can use most Verbs as Nouns for naming persons or their jobs by adding " -er ": bake – baker, swim – swimmer, eat – eater, give – giver, walk – walker, build – builder, join – joiner, write – writer. Only a few verbs such as "act" or "protect" must have the ending " -or ": "actor", "protector".
12.	There are several Verbs that have the ending -en : shorten, widen, lengthen, lighten etc. They can come from Adjectives, or from Nouns that describe something. If we want to describe something or someone, we always can use a roundabout way of saying things with "make": "make it long", "make it longer", "make it not long", "make it not longer", etc.
13.	<p>Get rid of the Verbs! We extremely can simplify English by using Phrasal Verbs. Take the Verb "enter" for example. It means the same as "go in" or "come in". We take a common Action Verb and attach a word of direction or position. So, "to climb a tree" is "to go up a tree", and "to descend" is "to go down".</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We need 32 Verbs to cover the most essential actions. They are: "be, have, do (Helper Verbs); will, shall, can, may, must, would, should, could, might, ought to (Modal Verbs); bring, come, get, give, go, hold, keep, let, look, make, need, pull, push, put, seem, say, see, run, set, send, stay, take, turn (common Action Verbs)". • When you put after one of those common Action Verbs one of these direction words "across, after, around, at, away, back, by, down, far, in, left, near, off, on, out, over, right, round, to, together, under, up, upon" then you have the power to say things for which you usually would need many hundred Verbs! • The Verbs "get" and "put" have such a wide range of meaning that we can consider them Magic Verbs. With the Verb "get" we can say almost anything that describes any kind of "movement". With the Verb "put" we say anything that describes "placing" or "changing" things. Translate: get off, get on, get away, get about, get round, get across, get up, get down, get in, get out. And with all here mentioned Action Verbs we can do the same. "Look up" and be surprised!
14.	<p>Four Word Order Essentials:</p> <p>A.) A simple English sentence or answer (AND most subordinate clauses!) usually has the order "Subject – Verb – Object (– Adverb)": "<i>She has a lot of money today, but she has no time</i>".</p> <p>B.) A "Yes/No"-question has no question word but one of these Helper Verbs: be, have, do. This changes the order to Helper Verb – Subject – (Verb) – Object (– Adverb): "<i>Has she a lot of money today?</i>" or "<i>Does she have a lot of money today?</i>" or "<i>Is he tired now?</i>" Instead of "does", the Modal Verbs shall-should, will-would, may-might, can-could, must, ought to also can be used, and substitutes such as appear to, seem to, dare to, have to, need to, wish to, want to, like to, love to, hope to, decide to, used to, avoid to; be going / able / allowed to.</p> <p>C.) A question that asks for information begins with what, why, where, who, when, how. The order is: Question word – Helper Verb – Subject – Verb – (Object or Complement) – (Adverb): "<i>Why has she a lot of money today?</i>" or "Why does he run fast?" or "Who runs fast?"</p> <p>D.) The SVO-wordorder can turn the other way round when we change a sentence from Active Voice (I fill the kettle with water) into the Passive Voice: "<i>The kettle is filled with water by me</i>". The Subject "by me" can be dropped when the agent is not needed or ought to be kept secret.</p>
15.	Conjunctions such as " and (in addition), but (however), because (for), so (therefore), yet (in spite of that), nor (not either)" connect 2 words, clauses or sentences: "I have time so we can talk!". Word order: SVO, SVO.
16.	Position of the Frequency Adverbs (FA) always, often, sometimes, seldom, never: S-(-Aux)- FA -V-O. Other FA: usually, rarely, hardly ever, occasionally.
17.	With the Relative Pronouns that, which, who , whom, whose; where, when, (or no pronoun), we build Relative Clauses. See page 451 and practise"
18.	The 3rd Pers. Present tense has the ending -s . But instead of "has, does, gets, puts, makes", many native speakers say "have, do, get, put, make".
19.	Instead of a full question form " <i>Where do you want to go?</i> ", we simply can ask: " <i>Where to go?</i> ", " <i>What to do?</i> ", " <i>How to get it?</i> ", " <i>Where to put it?</i> "
20.	Sentences and Names must begin with a Capital letter (A, B, etc.). Each word must be separated by a gap! After (not before!) punctuation marks such as ", . ; ? !" also must be a gap!

Basic English Word List 单词表

This is the list you really need! About 1000 words for everyday life.
They enable you to talk about almost everything.

Operators or Function Words - 300 Words

功能词 - 300 个单词

(Please note that a word may appear several times as it can execute several different operations, or a word can have different forms!)

18 Helper Verbs: be, have, do; will, shall, can, may, must; would, should, could, might, ought to; used to; be to, have to, need, dare.

22 Basic Verbs: bring, come, get, give, go, hold, keep, let, look, make, pull, push, put, run, say, see, seem, send, set, stay, take, turn.

100 Daily Verbs: act, appear, avoid, beat, bite, blow, boil, break, burn, burst, change, choose, clean, control, cook, cope, close, count, crush, cry, deal, die, dig, doubt, drink, eat, empty, end, fall, fear, feed, feel, fill, find, fix, fly, fold, follow, grow, guide, hang, happen, hate, hear, help, hope, jump, kick, kill, kiss, know, lay, laugh, leak, lead, lie, lick, listen, live, lose, love, mean, mend, move, open, pour, press, read, remember, remind, roll, rule, shake, shout, sleep, slip, smile, speak, spy, stand, start, steer, step, stick, stop, suck, support, swim, talk, taste, tell, tear, think, throw, touch, try, walk, want, wish, write.

40 Direction Words: about, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, away, back, before, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, close to, down, down on, far, from, in, in front of, inside, into, left, near, nearby, next to, off, on, opposite, out, out of, outside, over, past, right, round, to, together, through, under, up, upon, up to, with, within; without, under, underneath, up; north, south, east, west.

5 Frequency Adverbs: always, often, sometimes, seldom, never.

15 Movement Adverbs: towards, forwards, backwards, downwards, upwards, inwards, outwards, centrewards, crosswards, leftwards, rightwards, northwards, southwards, westwards, eastwards.

32 General Adverbs: again, anyhow, even, ever, far, here, near, now, out, somehow, still, then, there, together, well; almost, enough, even, little, much, not, only, quite, so, too, very; yesterday, today, tomorrow; please; yes, no.

4 Articles: a / an, the, no.

4 Definite Pronouns: that, those, this, these.

20 Indefinite Pronouns: all, any, anyone, anybody, anything, every, everyone, everybody, everything, none, no one, nobody, nothing, other, some, someone, somebody, something, such.

8 Subject Pronouns: I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they.

8 Object Pronouns: me, thee, him, her, it, us, you, them.

8 Possessive Adjectives: my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their.

8 Possessive Pronouns: mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

8 Reflexive Pronouns: myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

12 Genuine Question Words: what, who, whom, whose, why, where, when, whether, which; whence, whither; how.

5 Relative Pronouns: that, which, who, whom, whose.

26 Conjunctions: and, because, since, due to, but, for, however, or, nor, if, so, yet, although, though, while, as, as if, until (till), when, after, before, ever since, that, so that, unless

Qualities - 155 Descriptive Words

状态- 155 个常用单词

able, acid, angry, automatic, awake, bad, beautiful, bent, big, bitter, black, blue, blunt, boiling, bright, broken, brown, certain, cheap,

chemical, chief, clean, clear, cold, common, complete, complex, conscious, cruel, cut, dark, dead, dear, deep, delicate, dependent, different, dirty, dry, early, elastic, electric, equal, false, fat, feeble, female, fertile, first, fixed, flat, foolish, free, frequent, full, future, general, good, great, green, grey, hanging, happy, hard, healthy, heavy, high, hollow, ill, important, kind, last, late, left, like, living, long, loose, loud, low, male, married, material, medical, military, mixed, narrow, natural, necessary, negative, new, normal, old, open, opposite, parallel, past, physical, political, poor, positive, possible, present, private, probable, public, quick, quiet, ready, red, regular, responsible, right, rough, round, sad, safe, same, second, secret, separate, serious, sharp, short, shut, simple, slow, small, smooth, soft, solid, special, sticky, stiff, straight, strange, strong, sudden, sweet, tall, thick, thin, tight, tired, true, violent, waiting, warm, wet, white, wide, wise, wrong, yellow, young.

Things - 200 Picturable Words

事物- 200 个可用图表示的单词

angle, ant, apple, arch, arm, army, baby, bag, ball, band, basin, basket, bath, bed, bee, bell, berry, bird, blade, board, boat, bone, book, boot, bottle, box, boy, brain, brake, branch, brick, bridge, brush, bucket, bulb, button, cake, camera, card, cart, carriage, cat, chain, cheese, chest, chin, church, circle, clock, cloud, coat, collar, comb, cord, cow, cup, curtain, cushion, dog, door, drain, drawer, dress, drop, ear, egg, engine, eye, face, farm, feather, finger, fish, flag, floor, fly, foot, fork, fowl, frame, garden, girl, glove, goat, gun, hair, hammer, hand, hat, head, heart, hook, horn, horse, hospital, house, island, jewel, kettle, key, knee, knife, knot, leaf, leg, library, line, lip, lock, map, match, monkey, moon, mouth, muscle, nail, neck, needle, nerve, net,

nose, nut, office, orange, oven, parcel, pen, pencil, picture, pig, pin, pipe, plane, plate, plough, pocket, pot, potato, prison, pump, rail, rat, receipt, ring, rod, roof, root, sail, school, scissors, screw, seed, sheep, shelf, ship, shirt, shoe, skin, skirt, snake, sock, spade, sponge, spoon, spring, square, stamp, star, station, stem, stick, stocking, stomach, store, street, sun, table, tail, thread, throat, thumb, ticket, toe, tongue, tooth, town, train, tray, tree, trousers, umbrella, wall, watch, wheel, whip, whistle, window, wing, wire, worm.

Things - 400 General Words

事物 - 400 个常用单词

account, act, addition, adjustment, advertisement, agreement, air, amount, amusement, animal, answer, approval, argument, art, attack, attempt, attention, attraction, authority, back, balance, base, behaviour, belief, birth, bit, bite, blood, blow, body, brass, bread, breath, brother, building, burn, burst, business, butter, canvas, care, cause, chalk, chance, change, cloth, coal, colour, comfort, committee, company, comparison, competition, condition, connection, control, cook, copper, copy, cork, cotton, cough, country, cover, crack, credit, crime, crush, cry, current, curve, damage, danger, daughter, day, death, debt, decision, degree, design, desire, destruction, detail, development, digestion, direction, discovery, discussion, disease, disgust, distance, distribution, division, doubt, drink, driving, dust, earth, edge, education, effect, end, error, event, example, exchange, existence, expansion, experience, expert, fact, fall, family, father, fear, feeling, fiction, field, fight, fire, flame, flight, flower, fold, food, force, form, friend, front, fruit, glass, gold, government, grain, grass, grip, group, growth, guide, harbour, harmony, hate, hearing, heat, help, history, hole, hope, hour, humour, ice, idea, impulse, increase,

industry, ink, insect, instrument, insurance, interest, invention, iron, jelly, join, journey, judge, jump, kick, kiss, knowledge, land, language, laugh, law, lead, learning, leather, letter, level, lift, light, limit, linen, liquid, list, look, loss, love, machine, man, manager, mark, market, mass, meal, measure, meat, meeting, memory, metal, middle, milk, mind, mine, minute, mist, money, month, morning, mother, motion, mountain, move, music, name, nation, need, news, night, noise, note, number, observation, offer, oil, operation, opinion, order, organisation, ornament, owner, page, pain, paint, paper, part, paste, payment, peace, person, place, plant, play, pleasure, point, poison, polish, porter, position, powder, power, price, print, process, produce, profit, property, prose, protest, pull, punishment, purpose, push, quality, question, rain, range, rate, ray, reaction, reading, reason, record, regret, relation, religion, representative, request, respect, rest, reward, rhythm, rice, river, road, roll, room, rub, rule, run, salt, sand, scale, science, sea, seat, secretary, selection, self, sense, servant, sex, shade, shake, shame, shock, side, sign, silk, silver, sister, size, sky, sleep, slip, slope, smash, smell, smile, smoke, sneeze, snow, soap, society, son, song, sort, sound, soup, space, stage, start, statement, steam, steel, step, stitch, stone, stop, story, stretch, structure, substance, sugar, suggestion, summer, support, surprise, swim, system, talk, taste, tax, teaching, tendency, test, theory, thing, thought, thunder, time, tin, top, tool, touch, trade, transport, trick, trouble, turn, twist, unit, use, value, verse, vessel, view, voice, walk, war, wash, waste, water, wave, wax, way, weather, week, weight, wind, wine, winter, woman, wood, wool, word, work, wound, writing, year.

Advice: Students must check each word in a dictionary and write down the word and all its forms and different meanings! This method will improve the student's comprehension ability and spelling skills!

How Does Our Brain Learn And Memorise Best?

It is fact that our brain's "**short-time-memory**" can "store" best **5** up to **7** different kinds of *information* in a fraction of a second, and with ease. This is scientifically proven and put into practice by forensic experts of the Police every day. When a witness of a crime or other event is interrogated by the Police, the questioner tries to retain a description about a person from the *short-time-memory* of the witness like this: 1. Was the person male or female? 2. Was the person young or old? 3. Was its face round or long? 4. Was its hair dark or fair? 5. Was its skin light or dark? 6. Were its eyes dark or bright? 7. Were its clothes formal or casual? In other words, the questioner gives the witness the choice of two **opposites** and he himself ticks on a questionnare the answer **A**, **B**, or **C** (for neutral). Then he asks questions of greater detail: (4a). Was the hair short or long? (4b). Was it straight or wavy? (4c). Was it neat or messy? Within only half an hour, the questioner has the result of more than 100 detailed answers, and so he can make a "profile" or even a detailed picture of the person! This is exactly the way we should teach and learn a language.

If you look at my teaching methods of the *Verb tenses* or how I teach *colours*, you will find this "*en bloc*"- or "*in one package*"-principle again. Only this time, the other way round: not getting but giving information! Teachers, as well as learners, have to exploit the natural memorising capacity of our brain! AND: Teachers should explain this to their students, so that they can use it! We must teach **learning stuff** in **context**. The just learnt stuff has to be **practised** in order to bring it from the "short-time-memory" into the "long-time-memory" of the learner. Let us take a look how to learn vocabulary effectively.

Learning Suggestions

Learning a foreign language requires certain logical rules. The first vocabulary should be learnt in a specific order. Unfortunately, this order is often ignored so that students, after three or more years of learning, still cannot compose any useful sentence on their own.

It is absolutely essential that we learn the *function words* and *operators* in an entire overview first. There are good reasons for such an action. The important *function words*, that comprise about 300 words (and the knowledge of their different forms and appearance which gives any user of the English language a pretty good idea what a certain text or speech is about), must be learnt first, because they appear frequently in every sentence.

It is not hard to figure out which ones of these *function words* we have to pick from the sometimes large lists. They are just those words you also use in your native language for any everyday conversation: *Personal Pronouns* (*I, you, me, me, etc.*), the *Possessive Pronouns* (*my – mine, her - hers, your - yours, etc.*), the *Demonstrative Pronouns* (*this - these, that - those*), some *Question Words* (*where, what, why, which, when, how*), the *Articles* (*the, a, an*), some *Conjunctions* (*and, also, because, but, or, while, etc.*), some *Adjectives* (*big, small, fast, slow, red, blue, etc.*), some *Adverbs* (*well, badly, here, there, left, right, please, thank you, very, always, never, yes, no, not, today, yesterday, tomorrow, 3 days ago, in 3 days etc.*), the *Auxiliary Verbs* (*be, have, do*), the *Modal Verbs* (*will - would, shall - should, may - might, can - could, must*).

In addition, you need to know some *Basic English Verbs* (*get, put, come, go, give, take, keep, bring, hold, let, pull, push, make, seem, say, see, look, set, send, run, stay, turn*) and you need to know that you can increase their number by adding to them *Direction Words* (*such as: at, away, to, from, for, in, into, before, after, on, off, etc.*).

How To Memorise New Words Effectively

Learn the four main kind of words in a logical method, that means in a package that makes sense. Look up in a dictionary for **Adjective**, **Noun**, **Verb** and **Adverb** and write them in a cross box such as this:

Adjective: clean	General Noun: the clean ing	Noun for persons: the cleaner er
Verb: to clean	Adverb: clean ly	

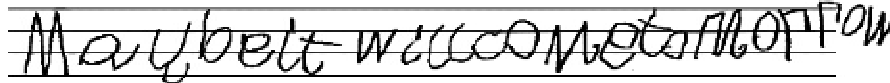
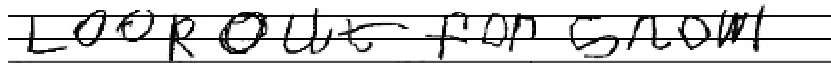
In some cases, there is no proper Verb available, such as for words like **sport** or **crime**. So we must paraphrase the Verb in a kind of "Noun Phrase" with the Verb "to do" or "to commit":

Adjective: criminal	general Noun: the crime	Noun, person: the criminal
Verb: to do a crime; to commit a crime	Adverb: criminal ly	

Making a Noun Phrase is a smart trick with which we can avoid using too many Verb forms! So, instead of "to clean" we can say "to make clean"

Attention: Left-hander!

During my work as teacher, I have uncovered the alarming fact that roughly 5 - 10% of the students aged 10 to 14 years cannot read and write properly, and many of them have severe speaking problems in English AND Chinese! Their handwritings look something like this:



This is the handwriting of a left-handed pupil (a lefty) after four years of forced writing practice with his right hand. I was dismayed when I found out why many children have learning disorders here in China. One of the reasons are irresponsible teachings and ignorant parents who still force left-handed children to write with their right hand!

When I asked "Why are left-handed children forced to write with their right hand?", I got some quite hollow explanations such as: *"Due to the importance of stroke order, developed for the comfortable use of right-handed people, it is considered more difficult to write readable Chinese characters with the left hand"*. Another answer: *"Because writing when moving one's hand away from its side towards the other side of the body can cause smudging if the outward side of the hand is allowed to drag across the writing"*. This, of course, was said by people who never wrote one single stroke with the left hand in their entire life and therefore, naturally, do not know how to do!

If their reasonings were true, conversely, right-to-left alphabets, such as the Arabic and Hebrew, could be considered easier to write with the left hand. And nonetheless, most Arabic-writing people write with their right hand, pushing the pen forward instead of drawing it.

I passionately believe in good virtues and useful traditions but I am also convinced that everyone should have the chance to play a good part in life and our society. Forcing a left-handed child to use its right hand for writing or other activities: can have a disastrous outcome:

1. Difficulties in character and personality:

Stammering (stuttering), bed-wetting, nail biting, shyness and being withdrawn, defiance and provocative behaviour, neurotic personality, physical tiredness, all sorts of language problems.

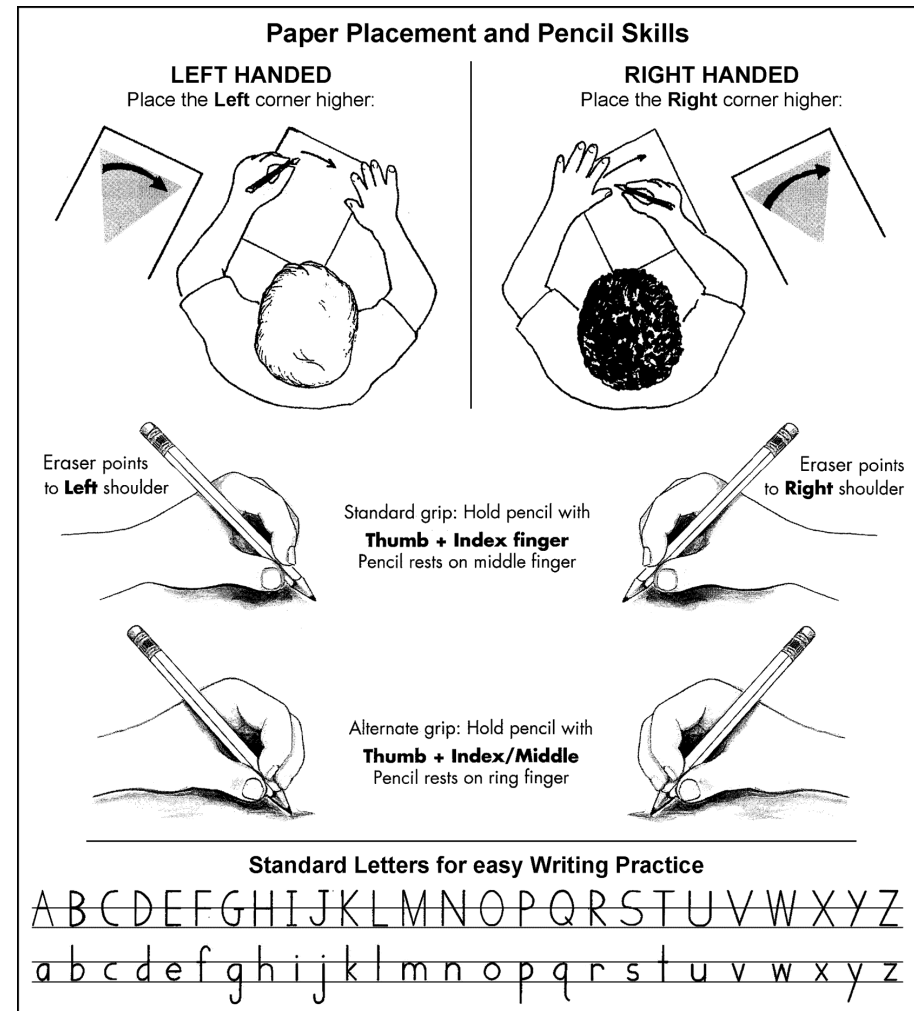
2. General learning difficulties such as:

Spelling difficulties, bad handwriting, dyslexia, reading difficulties, English difficulties, poor concentration, bad memory, desinterest.

Let me explain to you how these difficulties come about. I give you some facts: About 7-10% of all humans are left-handed by birth. Being left-handed is an *inherited quality* and not an illness! It is neither bad nor disadvantageous. Lots of famous people were or are left-handers: Charlie Chaplin, Sir Winston Churchill, Albert Einstein, Henry Ford, Bill Gates, Leonardo da Vinci, Queen Victoria, Sir Paul McCartney, Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, H. G. Wells, the US-presidents Reagan, Ford, Bush, Clinton, Obama; all these names clearly suggest that left-handed people are neither stupid nor clumsy or even unpractical. Left-handedness has to do with brain organisation and hand control.

The dominant writing hand is not just a physical thing. Controlling a pen is a mental thing that has to do with the way the brain is organised and where certain functions occur. The left and right *hemispheres* of the brain are "cross-wired" to the body, so the left side of the brain controls the right hand side of the body and the right side of the brain controls the left hand side. New findings in scientific examinations show that our brain is organised in *operation sectors* like the harddrive of a computer. This is what happen when you "re-programme" a left-hander to a right-hander: *By training the right hand, the brain begins to re-write a new hand-operation programme on the left side of the brain. The new programme partly or totally overwrites already existing programmes such as the language sector which explains that such a child begins to stammer. The language programme is damaged.* Changing the hand used for writing causes great confusion in the brain and can badly effect the students future!

What can be done? Natural left-handers should always be allowed to develop in their own way and write left-handed if that is their choice. Depending on the *position and inclination* of the writing paper, and the writing method, left-handed writers can write as neatly, efficiently and fast as right-handed writers. Usually a left-handed child needs to be trained to write correctly with the left hand. The following illustration shows you how to place the paper and hold the pencil. We practise the upper case letters first: in a line with A's, then B's, and so on. After that we practise the lower case letters in the same way. My students achieved writing with the left hand: in 3 to 5 days as fast as with the right hand, as neat as with the right in circa 10 days, and faster and tidier than with the right in about 14 to 20 days--even in Chinese!



First, choose an easy-to-write "Arial" style for practising. After 30 days practice, the learner can decide if he or she wants to learn a "cursive" style. Let lefties write with their left hand--for their own sake!

Classroom Commands

It is important that learners have an English "learning environment". English as a second language should be presented in English, and **not** primarily in the native language of the students. There are some principles the teacher ought to follow:

1. Speak with a **firm** and **clear** voice.
2. Do not mumble, **do not speak** with a strong accent or use **slang**.
3. Use **standard language** and its standard expressions.
4. Use words in their **full form**, not short and contracted forms.
5. Wear **formal clothes**, such as business suits and costumes, because such a teacher automatically will be recognised as authority. Do not wear casual clothes as they may imply your inferiority!
6. Be **polite** and friendly, but do not pretend to be the students' friend as the learners will begin to treat you as such. One result may be that restoring discipline in an unruly class becomes more difficult.
7. Give the students good **explanations**, allow them to ask questions to the topic, then give them appropriate answers; offer them your help unconditionally.
8. Be **patient**, flexible, but also **strict** to maintain classroom order.
9. Use phrases such as "**thank you!**", "**please**" and "**well done**" as much as possible to show your respect towards the students and their efforts. By doing this you animate them to do the same.
10. **Change** your **phrases** as often as possible to make learners get used to the fact that in English we do not only one stereotype expression like "how are you?" - "I'm fine, thanks - and you?"
11. **Practise** all sorts of common phrases and expressions **frequently**,

particularly in the beginning. That really helps students feel well in this English-speaking environment

12. Please, always try to **explain WHY** and in what situations we use such phrases and expressions, so that the learners can decide where, when and how they may use them. Repeat your explanations, and do ask the learners why and what for those phrases are used.

13. **Be aware** that especially Chinese youngsters act under "**peer pressure**". So when one student acts unruly or against the teacher, others quickly might follow suit

14. **Never** ever laugh at students, **blame** them for mistakes or ridicule them. Instead build trust in themselves by letting them experience success. That makes any learner confident in their ability

15. Do not let the students call you by your given name. Let them call you "**Sir / Madam**" or (by your family name) for instance: "Mr Blake / Mrs Blake" as this artificial distance serves also as barrier of respect.

16. Teach students to **respond politely**: "Yes, Sir / Madam", "No, Sir / Madam", "I am sorry, Sir / Madam", "I do apologise, Sir / Madam"

English should be **used in the classroom** as much as possible. At the start of a new school year, spend a few days going through all the classroom commands that might be useful. Translate them into the students' native language so that you can use both at first

Tell me your full name! / Say your name!

Tell me your family name / given name!

Repeat your name! Say your name again

Spell your name (with the telephone spelling alphabet)!

Sign your name!

Stand up! / Stand please!
Please, sit! / Sit down! / Take your seat!
Lower the shades! / Close / Shut the curtains / blinds!
Turn on / off the lights! Put on / off the lights!
Open your book! Close / Shut your book!
Close / Shut the door / blind / windows / shutters!
Bring in / Hand in your homework!
Come to the front! / Come forward! / Come here !
Go to the board!
Write on the board!
Take notes! / Write down everything / Write down these parts!
Erase / clean the board!
Read page seventeen!
Study page thirty-five!
Look at the picture / bar graph / table / pie chart!
Look at the screen / writing board! Look to / at me!
Look into the dictionary! Look up a word!
Raise your hand! / Hands up!
Ask a question! Answer the question!
Listen to the question! Listen to the answer!
Listen and write to my dictation :
Go over the answers! / Look at the answers!
Correct your mistakes!
Share a book! Give him / her your book, please!
Discuss the question! You have five minutes!
Work together! Help each other!
Share with the class!
Pronounce the word / phrase! Enunciate the word / phrase!

Read the definition / translation!
Copy the word! Write the word down!
Speak slowly! / Speak slower! / Write clearly!
Work alone! / Do your own work! / Work on your own!
Work with a partner!
Break up into small groups! Work in a group of four (students)!
Work as a class! We now work all together!
Take out a piece / sheet of paper!
Pass out the tests! Collect the tests!
Answer the questions!
Say that again! Repeat that!
Check your answers!
Put away your book!
Be quiet, please. Silence!
This is your homework for next time ! Do your homework!
Write five short / long sentences about !
Choose the correct answer!
Underline the word / phrase / first clause / second clause / sentence!
Underline the correct answer. Double underline the wrong answer!
Fill in the blanks!
Mark the answer sheet! / Bubble the answer!
Match the words!
Cross out the word!
Unscramble the word!
Put the words in (the right / correct) order!
Write on another (a separate) sheet of paper!
Collect all rubbish! Put all rubbish in the rubbish bin!
Put up the chairs! Put the chairs on the desks! Sweep the floor

Lesson plan

A lesson plan is a teacher's detailed description of the course of instruction for a lesson. A daily lesson plan is developed by a teacher to guide class learning. Details will vary depending on the preference of the teacher, subject being covered, and the needs of the students. There may be requirements mandated by the school system regarding the plan. But in the very first place, a lesson plan is **the teacher's guide** for running a particular lesson. It must include the goal (what the students are supposed to learn), how the goal will be reached (the method, procedure) and a way of measuring how well the goal was reached (test, worksheet, homework etc.).

Development

While there are many formats for a lesson plan, most lesson plans contain some or all of these elements, typically in this order:

- *Title* of the lesson
- *Time* required to complete the lesson
- List of required *materials*
- List of *objectives*, which may be *behavioral objectives* (what the student can *do* at lesson completion) or *knowledge objectives* (what the student *knows* at lesson completion)
- The *set* (or lead-in, or bridge-in) that focuses students on the lesson's skills or concepts—these include showing pictures or models, asking leading questions, or reviewing previous lessons
- An *instructional component* that describes the sequence of events that make up the lesson, including the teacher's

instructional input and, where appropriate, guided practice by students to consolidate new skills and ideas

- *Independent practice* that allows students to extend skills or knowledge on their own
- A *summary*, where the teacher wraps up the discussion and answers questions
- An *evaluation* component, a test for mastery of the instructed skills or concepts—such as a set of questions to answer or a set of instructions to follow
- A *risk assessment* where the lesson's risks and the steps taken to minimise them are documented
- An *analysis* component the teacher uses to reflect on the lesson itself—such as what worked and what needs improving
- A *continuity* component reviews and reflects on content from the previous lesson

Criteria of a good Unit Plan

1. Needs, capabilities, interest of the learner should be considered.
2. Prepared on the sound psychological knowledge of the learner.
3. Provide a new learning experience; systematic but flexible.
4. Sustain the attention of the learner till the end.
5. Related to social and Physical environment of the learner.
6. Development of learner's personality.

It is important to note that lesson planning is a thinking process, not the filling in of a lesson plan template. Lesson plan should be a guide map for action, a comprehensive chart of classroom teaching-learning activities, a flexible but systematic approach for the teaching of concepts, skills and attitudes.

ESL (English as Second Language) Lesson Plan

A lesson plan is a teacher's detailed description of the course or lesson. According to The British Council, the main education authority in the UK, the best approach to a sensible but simple lesson plan is asking yourself following questions: Why should I write a plan? You may find that during your time as an assistant you are called upon to not only assist the teacher but to actually teach the English lesson yourself. If this is the case the best option is to be prepared. Once you have prepared your lesson you will feel much more confident walking into the classroom and you will soon be able to relax into your new role.

Points to consider when writing the plan:

1. What is the main topic of the lesson? If the activities in the lesson have a logical link then the learners will be able to follow you and the lesson, more easily.
2. How can I arouse their interest? Begin the lesson by involving the children straight away. Show them a picture, photo or object to capture their attention and indicate which topic the lesson is based on.
3. How can I challenge them? Every learner, whatever their age or level needs to be challenged. If there is no challenge then there is no learning. If there is no learning, there is no motivation. Think about what they already know and make sure your lesson isn't just teaching them the same thing.
4. How much should I review what they've already done? Having said you should challenge them, you can and should review previous words and work in general. Teaching a word one lesson does not mean that all the learners have actually learnt it for the next. Incorporate previously taught language in new situations to give the learners more practice.
5. What are the objectives of the lesson? It is vital to always think about WHY they are doing an activity, game or song. Everything on your plan should be educational. If you do not know what an activity is teaching the learners then take it off your plan.
6. What vocabulary do I want to teach them? If you prepare beforehand exactly what words you are going to concentrate on and how you are going to present them you will be better equipped to explain them clearly to the children.
7. How can I explain the activities? You should prepare, at least mentally, how you are going to explain each activity. Explanations should be short, clear and visual. Do not forget to demonstrate and check their understanding by getting one or two of them to demonstrate for you. Also decide how you are going to write on the board. You can draw a diagram on your plan to remind you so that it's clearer for the learners.
8. How much detail do I need on my plan? If you are working from a book then do not forget page numbers. As a guideline, imagine that someone else has to cover your class. They should be able to read your plan and teach your lesson.
9. What order should I teach the activities in? As a very general rule you can start with an introduction to the lesson, introduce the new language, give the children some controlled practice and move onto freer practice. Finally review what they've done and get feedback from the children themselves about what they did.

10. What problems might I have? If you are not sure if an activity will work; if you think it's too hard or too long then take time before the lesson, at the planning stage, to think about how to resolve any problems that could arise. Problems could be activity related or time-table related, student related or even teacher-related. Taking those extra minutes when planning to think about possible solutions could avoid you having a disastrous lesson.

Extra tips:

- Have a lesson plan template that you can just fill in and print off.
- Have your plan to hand at all times during the lesson.
- Tick the activities that worked well as you do them.
- Make any extra comments at the end of the lesson about what worked and what did not to help you plan your next lesson.
- Plan a series of lessons that are linked to the same theme to have coherence to your lessons.
- Have extra activities ready just in case they finish early. This can be for both mid-lesson for quick finishers or at the end of the lesson if your plan is shorter than you imagined.
- Remember to allow time for preparation, action and reviewing.
- An example of controlled practice is when you provide sentences with missing words. The learners need to fill in the gap to talk to their partner and in this way everyone produces similar language. Freer practice is when you set up the situation, for example meeting someone new, and you let the children decide on their own role-play language using what

they know and what they have recently learnt. You will probably do more 'freer practice' with older primary learners than the younger ones who have limited language at their disposal.

Check-list of what to include:

- Materials
- Objectives
- Procedures
- Estimated time for each activity
- Explanations
- Board work
- Page numbers (if working from a text book)
- Extra activities
- Follow-on activities
- Lesson evaluation – what you would do differently next time or what went well

Advice:

It is up to you in how many stages you proceed and also in what way you present the topic. In many cases, it even does not matter which kind of topic the ESL teacher chooses. But it is vital that the teacher or his school authorities choose topics that enhances the learners' ability and skills to speak and understand English. **Intellectual topics** such as Politics, Religion, Rules or Morals of Society **have no place in Primary Education** of ESL teachers! **The ESL learners need interaction and not dull lectures or monologues from the front!**

Writing a lesson plan does not mean that you have to write an extensive and elaborate essay. It rather means that you only need to write down simple and short notes on a kind of formsheet in table design as you can see an example here. Make two tables. The first table contains only the class or group name, the date, lesson number. Then the topic of the lesson, what you want to achieve with that lesson (objective), and what material you need. The second table contains how you want to give the student knowledge and skills.

Example lesson plan, Part 1:

Group: Year 3, English 1st year
Date: 02/11/2017
Lesson: 4
Topic: (or title): My favourite food
Duration: 45 mins
Materials:
1. Blackboard (or smartboard)
2. A4 paper (one per desk) for drawing activity
3. Flashcards
4. Worksheet
5. (others)
Objectives:
1. By the end of the lesson learners will be able to say what their favourite food is.
2. Learners will be introduced to Nouns; 'lettuce, cucumber, ...
3. Learners will review Verbs 'eat', 'like'...

Example lesson plan, Part 2:

Procedures		Time
Introduction	Introduce new words using flash cards. Place a flash card with the image of food on a board or the floor before the lesson. Brainstorm names of food from students. Say the names, let students repeat them	
Stage 1 I (do) like I do not like	Activity 1	5-10 mins
	Activity 2 (optional)	
Stage 2 Asking Questions	Activity 1 (such as "What food / dish / fruit / meat / vegetable do you like?")	10-15 mins
	Activity2 (optional)	
Stage 3 My favourite food is	Activity 1 (such as drawing an apple and write a matching sentence under it)	10-15 mins
	Activity 2 (optional)	
Extra activities	(optional)	
Follow up and home-work	Let the learners work on prepared phonics worksheets (for example)	5-10 mins
Lesson evaluation	such as: learners were attentive, learners found the lesson too difficult, etc.	

SPELLING PATTERNS

Plenty of words in English are not spelled as they are pronounced because the English spelling was once influenced by the illogical French spelling. And the English language has changed a lot during the last 600 years but not its writing. Therefore, English spelling appears to be almost antiphonetic and is irregular to a high degree.

The spelling in English follows some basic patterns and about two thirds of English words follow these patterns. The fact that each pattern has lots of exceptions is the reason why we do not call them "rules" here. Nonetheless, I should like to give you some hints.

The main basic spelling patterns of English relate to: prefixes and suffixes; spelling and plurals; doubling letters; dropping and adding letters; Verb forms. This section focuses on British English but also covers some basic differences in spelling between British and American English. Let us have a look at the most important ones:

Spelling: Prefixes

When there is a Prefix, we do not normally add or take away more letters:

<i>dis + obey → disobey</i>	<i>dis + satisfied → dissatisfied</i>
<i>in + humane → inhumane</i>	<i>in + sane → insane</i>
<i>inter + national → international</i>	<i>mis + rule → misrule</i>
<i>mis + spell → misspell</i>	<i>over + hear → overhear</i>
<i>super + human → superhuman</i>	<i>un + natural → unnatural</i>
<i>un + sure → unsure</i>	<i>under + pass → underpass</i>

Prefixes *il-*, *im-*, *ir-*

We commonly change the Prefix *in-* to *il-*, *im-* or *ir-* when the first letter of a word is *l*, *m*, *p*, or *r*.

<i>in</i> becomes <i>il-</i> before <i>l</i>	<i>in</i> becomes <i>im-</i> before <i>m</i> or <i>p</i>	<i>in</i> becomes <i>ir-</i> before <i>r</i>
<i>illegible</i> <i>illiterate</i> <i>illogical</i>	<i>immoral</i> <i>immature</i> <i>impossible</i>	<i>irrelevant</i> <i>irresponsible</i> <i>irreplaceable</i>

Spelling and Plurals

There are rules for the Plurals of regular Nouns and the -s forms of regular Verbs.

The general rule is add -s:

bring → brings day → days ear → ears smile → smiles speak → speaks town → towns

If the ending is pronounced as 'ch' /tʃ/ or 's' /s/, we add -es /ɪz/:

Noun Plurals	Verb -s forms
<i>bus → buses</i>	<i>cross → crosses</i>
<i>church → churches</i>	<i>fetch → fetches</i>
<i>kiss → kisses</i>	<i>guess → guesses</i>

If a word ends in an -e, we add an -s:

base → bases face → faces judge → judges lose → loses

If the word ends in a Consonant plus **-y**, we change **-y** to **ies**:

Poun Plurals	Verb -s forms
<i>baby</i> → <i>babies</i>	<i>marry</i> → <i>marries</i>
<i>opportunity</i> → <i>opportunities</i>	<i>reply</i> → <i>replies</i>

We add **-es** to some words ending in **-o**:

Noun Plurals	Noun Plurals / Verb -s forms
<i>tomato</i> → <i>tomatoes</i>	<i>echo</i> → <i>echoes</i>
<i>cargo</i> → <i>cargoes</i>	<i>embargo</i> → <i>embargoes</i>
<i>hero</i> → <i>heroes</i>	<i>go</i> → <i>goes</i> (<i>go</i> [n] = <i>attempt</i>)

However, some words ending in **-o** only require **-s**: *videos*, *discos*, *pianos*, *memos*, *photos*.

For some Nouns ending in **-f** or **-fe**, we form the Plural by changing the **-f** or **-fe** to **-ves**:

loaf → ***loaves*** *shelf* → ***shelves*** *thief* → ***thieves*** *wife* → ***wives***

Spelling: doubling Consonants

We often double the final Consonant of a word (*b*, *d*, *g*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *r*, *t*) when a Suffix beginning with a Vowel is added (**-ed**, **-er**, **-est**, **-ing**):

<i>hop</i> + -ed → <i>hopped</i>	<i>slim</i> + -ing → <i>slimming</i>
<i>red</i> + -ish → <i>reddish</i>	<i>thin</i> + -er → <i>thinner</i>
<i>rub</i> + -ed → <i>rubbed</i>	<i>travel</i> + -er → <i>traveller</i>
<i>sit</i> + -ing → <i>sitting</i>	<i>wet</i> + -er → <i>wetter</i>

When we add a Suffix to a word with more than one syllable, we double the Consonant only when the word ends in a stressed syllable (the stressed syllable of the base form is in bold):

<i>admit</i> + -ing → <i>admitting</i>	<i>prefer</i> + -ed → <i>preferred</i>
<i>forget</i> + -ing → <i>forgetting</i>	<i>transmit</i> + -ed → <i>transmitted</i>
<i>occur</i> + -ence → <i>occurrence</i>	<i>upset</i> + -ing → <i>upsetting</i>

Compare, however, *visit* or *enter* where the spoken stress is on the first syllable:

<i>visit</i> → <i>visiting</i>	<i>enter</i> → <i>entered</i>
Not: <i>visitting</i>	Not: <i>enterred</i>

Note too that in each case the vowel before the last consonant is a short Vowel.

Warning:

We do not double the final Consonant before a Suffix:

– if the word ends in two written Consonants, e.g. *export* = *exported*, *find* = *finding*, *insist* = *insisted*, *lift* = *lifted*, *persist* = *persistence*

– if there are two written vowels together in the word, e.g. *meeting*, *rained*, *weaken*, *trainer*, *repeated*.

Irregular forms and exceptions

Warning:

Some monosyllabic words ending in **-s** are irregular. We normally do not double the **-s**, although some doubled forms will be seen. For example: *busses* and *buses*; *gasses* and *gases*. (*Busses* and *gasses* are not common.)

Some words, several of them ending in *l*, with more than two syllables, have a double Consonant even though the last syllable is not stressed; for example, *labelling*, *traveller*, *equalled*, *handicapped*, *programmed*. In American English the single Consonant spelling is usually more common: *labeling*, *traveler*.

Spelling: dropping and adding letters

The final -e

We often drop the final -e when a Suffix beginning with a Vowel is added to a word:

<i>approve + -al → approval</i>	<i>fame + -ous → famous</i>
<i>hate + -ed → hated</i>	<i>hope + -ing → hoping</i>
<i>invite + -ation → invitation</i>	<i>note + -able → notable</i>

Warning:

We keep the -e in *dyeing* (from *dye*) and *singeing* (from *singe*) to differentiate them from similar words e.g. *dying* (from *die*) and *singing* (from *sing*).

When a Suffix begins with a Consonant (e.g. -less, -ful, -ly, -ment) we do not normally drop the -e:

definitely excitement forceful hopeless lately widely

Sometimes we do drop the -e:

<i>argue → argument</i>	<i>due → duly</i>
<i>true → truly</i>	<i>whole → wholly</i>

Some words have alternative forms with or without an -e: for example, *acknowledgement* or *acknowledgment*, and *judgement* or *judgment*.

The suffix -ally

The Suffix -ally is added to adjectives ending in -ic to form adverbs:

basic → basically

realistic → realistically

tragic → tragically

Warning:

BUT: *publicly*

Changing -y to -i

When we add a Suffix to a word ending in a Consonant + -y, we normally change -y to i:

<i>amplify + -er → amplifier</i>	<i>busy + -ness → business</i>
<i>day + -ly → daily</i>	<i>easy + -ly → easily</i>
<i>fury + -ous → furious</i>	<i>happy + -ly → happily</i>
<i>hurry + -s → hurries</i>	<i>purify + -cation → purification</i>
<i>reply + -ed → replied</i>	<i>spy + -s → spies</i>

Warning:

Some words with one syllable keep the -y before a Suffix: *dryness*, *shyness*, *slyness*.

We keep -y before -ing: *studying*, *worrying*.

We keep -y before 's: *the fly's wings*, *Andy's house*.

We usually keep the -y in most words that end in a vowel + -y:

buy → buyer

destroy → destroys

Warning:

BUT: *day → daily*

Spelling: ie or ei?

If in doubt about **ie** or **ei**, when the sound of the Vowel is as in *brief* /i:/, we spell it *ie*; but after the letter c, we spell it *ei*:

ie	<i>achieve</i>	<i>belief</i>	<i>diesel</i>	<i>niece</i>	<i>relieve</i>
ei after c	<i>ceiling</i>	<i>conceit</i>	<i>deceive</i>	<i>receipt</i>	<i>perceive</i>

Words in which -y has changed to i end in -ies even after a c:

emergency → emergencies

bureaucracy → bureaucracies

Warning:

In most words that do not have the pronunciation /i:/ as in *brief*, the usual order is *e* before *i*, e.g. *neighbour*, *leisure*, *height*, *friend*, *ancient*, *science* are common exceptions.

Spelling and Verb forms

Past and -ed forms

The Past and -ed forms are the same in regular Verbs. The following are the spelling rules for regular Verbs.

We add -ed to the base form of the Verb:

clean → *cleaned* *echo* → *echoed* *email* → *emailed* *sail* → *sailed*

If the word ends in -e, we add -d to the base form of the Verb:

agree → *agreed* *dine* → *dined* *love* → *loved*

If the word ends in a Consonant + -y, we change the -y to *i* before -ed:

apply → *applied* *cry* → *cried*

There are three common exceptions, where we change the -y to *i* after a Vowel and just -d is added:

pay → *paid* *say* → *said*

-ing forms

The general rule is add -ing to the base form of the Verb:

go → *going* *hurry* → *hurrying* *play* → *playing*

If the word ends in -e, we drop the -e before -ing:

love → *loving* *lose* → *losing* *write* → *writing*

But if the word ends in -ee, -ye, or -oe, we keep the -e:

agree → *agreeing* *dye* → *dyeing* (compare: *die/dying*) *see* → *seeing*

If the word ends in -ie, we change the -i to -y and we drop the -e before -ing:

die → *dying* *lie* → *lying* *tie* → *tying*

Addition of final -e to indicate long Vowel

We use a final silent -e to indicate that the stressed vowel is long:

long vowel	<i>hate, fate</i>	<i>theme, impede</i>	<i>dine, bite</i>
short vowel	<i>hat, fat</i>	<i>them, fed</i>	<i>din, bit</i>

Warning:

There are some common exceptions:

<i>come</i>	<i>done</i>	<i>give</i>	<i>gone</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>live (vb.)</i>	<i>love</i>
<i>mere</i>	<i>none</i>	<i>one</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>there</i>	<i>were</i>	<i>where</i>

British English and American English Spelling

Here are some common differences between the spelling of British English and American English. Any good dictionary will give information about other spelling differences:

British English	American English	British English	American English
<i>analyse</i>	<i>analyze</i>	<i>defence</i>	<i>defense</i>
<i>aeroplane</i>	<i>airplane</i>	<i>labour</i>	<i>labor</i>
<i>centre</i>	<i>center</i>	<i>neighbour</i>	<i>neighbor</i>
<i>(bank) cheque</i>	<i>check</i>	<i>programme</i>	<i>program</i>
<i>colour</i>	<i>color</i>	<i>theatre</i>	<i>theater</i>
<i>criticise</i>	<i>criticize</i>		

We will come back to the spelling of British English and American English and Pronunciation on pages 82 to 84, as well as pages 91 to 102.

The following table shows you the four most important alphabets with some explanations. We can see that they are related. (The letters K,X,Y,Z are Greek and should not be used in words of Roman origin):

The Greek Alphabet				The Roman Alphabet				The Cyrillic Alphabet				The English Alphabet			
<p>The Greek Alphabet has been used to write the Greek language since the 8th century BC. It was derived from an earlier Phoenician Alphabet, and was in turn the ancestor of the Roman and Cyrillic Alphabets.</p> <p>Internationally, the Greek Alphabet today also serves as a source of technical symbols and labels in mathematics, science and other fields.</p> <p>In its <i>classical</i> and <i>modern</i> form, the Alphabet has 24 letters, ordered from <i>Alpha</i> to <i>Omega</i>. Like Roman and Cyrillic, Greek originally had only a single form of each letter; it developed the <i>Letter Case</i> distinction between <i>Upper Case</i> and <i>Lower Case</i> (<i>Minuscules</i>) forms in parallel with Roman letters during the modern era.</p> <p>Sound values and conventional <i>transcriptions</i> for some of the letters differ between Ancient Greek and Modern Greek usage, owing to phonological changes in the language. The sounds have different qualities: <i>ô, û, ô, é, í, î, û, î, û.</i></p>				<p>The Roman (or Latin) Alphabet evolved partly from a Greek Alphabet and partly from an Etruscan Alphabet since the 7th century BC. During the Middle Ages, the Roman Alphabet was adapted to Romance, Germanic and other languages. With the age of colonialism it spread overseas.</p> <p>Letter shapes have changed over the centuries, including the creation for early Medieval Latin of <i>Lower Case</i> forms (<i>Minuscules</i>) which did not exist in the age of the Roman Empire.</p> <p>The Roman Alphabets used in Germanic languages took on new letters such as <i>j, u,</i> and <i>w,</i> later <i>ð, þ, þ, ß</i> and <i>æ, å, ð, ï, ø, ö, ü;</i> the Romance languages took on <i>ç, ş, ț, ñ</i> and <i>ă, â, â, â, ê, é, ê, î, î, î, ô, ô, ô, ô, œ, ù, ú, û, û.</i></p> <p>The International Phonetic Alphabet, as well as <i>“Pinyin”</i>, the <i>Romanisation</i> of the Chinese languages, are based on Roman letters. The Chinese <i>tones</i> are represented by these letters: <i>ā, á, â, à, â, ê, è, é, ê, ĩ, ĩ, ĩ, ĩ, ô, ò, ó, ô, ù, û, ú, ú.</i></p>				<p>The Cyrillic Alphabet is the writing system of the Russian language as well as other languages in eastern Europe and northern Asia. It is the basis of Alphabets used in various languages, especially those of Slavonic origin, and non-Slavonic languages influenced by the Russian Empire and the following Soviet Union. Cyrillic was developed in the First Bulgarian Empire during the 10th century AD. Cyrillic <i>Majuscules</i> and <i>Minuscules</i> are not as differentiated as in Roman <i>typography</i>; they are small <i>Capitals</i> (with exceptions: the Cyrillic <i>a, e, p,</i> and <i>y</i> adopted Western <i>Minuscule</i> shapes, the <i>Minuscule</i> <i>ф</i> is typically designed under the influence of the Roman <i>p,</i> the <i>Minuscule</i> <i>б</i> is a traditional handwritten form).</p> <p>Nowadays, about 300 million people in Europe and Asia use it as the official Alphabet for their national languages. The Cyrillic Alphabet is one of the most used writing systems in the world.</p> <p>In the Bulgarian, Serbian or Mongolian language, we find sounds which are different from Russian. They are represented by these letters: <i>ѐ, ђ, ѣ, е, с, і, ї, ј, љ, њ, ѝ, ѧ, ѫ, Ѱ, ѱ, Ѳ, ѳ.</i></p>				<p>The Old English language was first written in a kind of Germanic Alphabet called “Runes”. The Roman writing, introduced by Christian missionaries, replaced slowly the Germanic Runes from about the 6th century AD. The Runes influenced the emerging English Alphabet by providing it with the letters <i>“thorn”</i> (<i>þ, þ</i>) and <i>“eth”</i> (<i>Ð, ð</i>), nowadays written with <i>th</i>. The <i>a-e</i> ligature (<i>Æ, æ</i>) was adopted as well as the French <i>o-e</i> ligature (<i>Œ, œ</i>) Additionally, the <i>v-v</i> or <i>u-u</i> ligature <i>“double-u”</i> (<i>W, w</i>) was adopted from German.</p> <p>The modern English Alphabet is mostly based on the Roman Alphabet. In English we use a lot of <i>double-letters</i> such as <i>ch, gh, ng, ph, qu, sh, th, wh, wr</i> and <i>ai, au, aw, ay, ee, ei, eu, ew, ie, oa, oi, oo, ou, ow, oy,</i> but they are not considered separate letters in the Alphabet. The sound of the English letters has considerably changed during the last 600 years. Each letter can have a large variety of different sounds - often to a degree of being totally anti-phonetic.</p>			
<i>Majuscule</i>	<i>Minuscule</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>	<i>Majuscule</i>	<i>Minuscule</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>	<i>Majuscule</i>	<i>Minuscule</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>	<i>Majuscule</i>	<i>Minuscule</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Pronunciation</i>
A	α	alpha	alfa	A	a	a	a:	А	а	a	a:	А	a	a	ei
B	β	beta	beta	B	b	be	be:	Б	б	be	be	Б	b	bee	bi:
Γ	γ	gamma	gama	C	c	ke	ke:, se:	В	в	ve	ve	С	c	cee	si:
Δ	δ	delta	delta	D	d	de	de:	Г	г	ge	ge	Д	d	dee	di:
E	ε	epsilon	epsilon	E	e	e	e:	Д	д	de	de	Е	e	e	i:
Z	ζ	zeta	ze:ta	F	f	ef	ef	Е	е	ye	je	Ф	f	ef	ef
H	η	eta	e:ta	G	g	ge	ge:	Ё	ё	yo	jo, o:	Г	g	gee	dji:
Θ	θ	theta	θe:ta	H	h	ha	ha:	Ж	ж	zhe	zhe, dje	Н	h	(h)aitch	(h)eitch
I	ι	iota	io:ta	I	i	i	i:	З	з	ze	ze	И	i	i	ai
K	κ	kappa	kappa	K	k	ka	ka:	И	и	i	i:	Ј	j	jay	djei
Λ	λ	lambda	lambda	L	l	el	el	Й	й	<i>short i</i>	<i>short i</i>	К	k	kay	kei
M		my	mi:	M	m	em	em	К	к	ka	ka:	Л	l	el	el
N	ν	ny	ni:	N	n	en	en	Л	л	el	el	М	m	em	em
Ξ	ξ	xi	chi:	O	o	o	o:	М	м	em	em	Н	n	en	en
Ο	ο	omikron	omicron	P	p	pe	pe:	Н	н	en	en	Ο	o	o	ou
Π	π	phi	pi:	Q	q	qu	ku:	Ο	ο	o	o:	Ρ	p	pee	pi:
Ρ	ρ	rho	ro:	R	r	er	err	Π	π	pe	pe	Q	q	cue	kju:
Σ	ς, σ	sigma	sigma	S	s	es	es	Ρ	ρ	er	err	Р	r	ar	ar
T	τ	tau	tau	T	t	te	te:	С	с	es	es	С	s	es	es
Υ	υ	ipsilon	ipsilon	V	v	u	u:	Т	т	te	te	Т	t	tee	ti
Φ	φ	phi	fi:	X	x	ex	eks	У	у	u	u:	У	u	u	ju
X	χ	chi	chi	Y	y	i-graeca	i-graeca	Ф	ф	ef	ef	В	v	vee	vi:
Ψ	ψ	psi	psi:	Z	z	zeta	ze:ta	Х	х	kha	kha, cha, xa	W	w	double-u	dabl-ju
Ω	ω	omega	omega					Ц	ц	tse	tse	X	x	ex	ex
								Ч	ч	che	tche	Y	y	wy	wai
								Ш	ш	sha	sha	Z	z	zed, zee	zed, zi:
								Щ	щ	shcha	sh-cha				
								Ъ	ъ	yer (<i>hard sign</i>)	jer (<i>hard sign</i>)				
								Ы	ы	yery	ji-ri				
								Ь	ь	yery (<i>soft sign</i>)	jere (<i>soft sign</i>)				
								Э	э	e	e				
								Ю	ю	yu	ju				
								Я	я	ya	ja				

Attempts to Tame the English Language

That English has become *THE* international language for communication in science, business and other fields could rightfully be considered a miracle as English is burdened with the greatest speaking and writing inconsistencies imaginable. The pronunciation system of the English language has undergone many changes throughout its history, from the phonological system of Old English (which was pretty much like the ones in German or Dutch today), via the one of Middle English which became mixed with French words and writing patterns, to the English language of our time.

The English consonant system has been relatively stable over time, although a number of significant changes have occurred. Examples include the loss (in most dialects) of the [ç] and [x] sounds still reflected by the "gh" in words like night and fight, and the splitting of voiced and voiceless allophones of fricatives into separate phonemes (such as the two different phonemes, namely the [ð] and the [θ] represented by "th"). There have also been many changes in consonant clusters, mostly reductions, for instance those that produced the usual modern pronunciations of such letter combinations as "wr-", "kn-" and "wh-".

The development of vowels has been much more complex. One of the most notable series of changes is known as the "**Great Vowel Shift**". That was a *new fashion* of pronouncing vowels differently and it began at the end of the 14th century and ebbed off right in the middle of that unfinished process about 200 years later. The [i:] and [u:] in words like price and mouth became diphthongs, and other long vowels became higher: [e:] became [i:] (as in meet), [a:] became [e:] and later [eɪ] (as in name), [o:] became [u:] (as in goose), and [ɔ:]

became [o:] and later [ou] (in British English now [əʊ]; as in bone). These shifts are responsible for the modern pronunciations of many written vowel combinations, including those involving a silent final ⟨e⟩.

Origin and Historical Pronunciation of the English Letters

A	Roman; original pronunciation: <i>a</i> as in <u>f</u> ather, used as long and short sound
B	Roman; never silent
C	Roman; pronunciation: before <i>e</i> and <i>i</i> = <i>s</i> ; before <i>a</i> and <i>o</i> and <i>u</i> = <i>k</i>
D	Roman
E	Roman; original pronunciation: <i>e</i> as in <u>g</u> reat, <u>g</u> et; never silent
F	Roman
G	Late Roman; developed from <i>C</i> for a softer and voiced sound; not silent
H	Roman; not silent
I	Roman; original pronunciation: <i>ee</i> as in <u>s</u> heet, <i>i</i> as in <u>b</u> it, <u>f</u> it
J	Late Roman; it developed from the vowel <i>i</i> to a consonantal vowel
K	Greek = <i>Kappa</i> ; was used by the Romans only in foreign words; never silent
L	Roman
M	Roman; never silent
N	Roman; never silent
O	Roman; original pronunciation: <i>o</i> as in <u>t</u> horn, <u>o</u> rig <u>i</u> n, <u>l</u> ot
P	Roman
Q	Greek and Roman; always written <i>qu</i> (ancient <i>qv</i>) and sounds like <i>kw</i> or <i>ku</i>
R	Roman; the original <i>r</i> was a trilling or rolling <i>rr</i> like in Scots or Spanish
S	Roman; spoken either voiceless or voiced
T	Roman; never silent
U	Germanic; invented in the late middle ages for the Roman vowel <i>v</i>
V	Roman; represents a consonant and a long vowel like <i>oo</i> in <i>boot</i> , also short
W	Germanic; developed from <i>vv</i> , representing the sound <i>uo</i> like <i>w</i> as in <i>water</i>
X	Greek = <i>Chi</i> ; in ancient Greek a sound like <i>kh</i> , in Roman and English like <i>ks</i>
Y	Greek = <i>Ypsilon</i> ; vowel sound like Chinese <i>ü</i> ; was used in foreign words
Z	Greek = <i>Zeta</i> ; original sound was like <i>ts</i> or <i>dz</i> , was used only in foreign words

This little table gives you information where the English letters come from. Mind that in some situations, idioms, words or dialects, we use the here shown historical pronunciation, as for example, in poetry or in some foreign words.

That lots of these **changes stopped somewhere in the middle** of the changing process had grave inconsistencies as a consequence. Many words that formerly rhymed (and may be expected to rhyme based on their spelling) no longer do. For example, in Shakespeare's time, right in the middle of the Great Vowel Shift, **food**, **good** and **blood** all had the Vowel [u:], but in modern pronunciation **good** has been shortened to [ʊ], while **blood** has been shortened and lowered to [ʌ] in most accents. In other cases, words that were formerly distinct have come to be pronounced the same – examples of such mergers include **meet–meat**, **pane–pain** and **toe–tow**.

IPA

Fact is that we write like 500 years ago, and, as we have just seen, English has dramatically changed. Because there were no standards for writing English sounds and words, everybody wrote differently, and those scholars who tried to tame the English speech and its spelling after Gutenberg's printing system made fast printing and the spread of information possible, a standardisation became necessary, but everybody who tried to bring some order into the English language landscape, messed it up by creating orthographic rules that had no linguistic foundation. Generations of teachers and textbook writers have struggled to deal with the spelling inconsistencies. The result was the creation of the so-called "International Phonetic Alphabet".

In 1886, a group of French and British language teachers, led by the French linguist Paul Passy, formed what would come to be known from 1897 onwards as the "International Phonetic Association" (in French, "l'Association phonétique internationale"). Their original alphabet was created to introduce a spelling reform for English and

French, quite simply because both languages have the very same spelling inconsistencies. Then, in order to make it usable for other languages, the values of the symbols were allowed to vary from language to language.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is an alphabetic system of phonetic notation based on the Latin and Greek alphabets. It was worked out by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century as a standardised representation of the sounds of spoken language. The IPA is used by lexicographers, foreign language students and teachers, linguists, speech-language pathologists, singers, actors, constructed language creators and translators. Since its creation, the IPA has undergone a number of revisions and expansions in 1900 and 1932, as well as in 1989 and 2005.

Description

The general principle of the IPA alphabet is to provide one letter for each distinctive sound (speech segment), although this practice is not followed if the sound itself is complex. This means that:

- It does not normally use combinations of letters to represent single sounds, the way English does with ⟨sh⟩, ⟨th⟩ and ⟨ng⟩, or single letters to represent multiple sounds the way ⟨x⟩ represents /ks/ or /gz/ in English.
- There are no letters that have context-dependent sound values, as do "hard" and "soft" ⟨c⟩ or ⟨g⟩ in several European languages.
- Finally, the IPA does not usually have separate letters for two sounds if no known language makes a distinction between them, a property known as "selectiveness".

Among the symbols of the IPA, 107 letters represent consonants and vowels, 31 diacritics are used to modify these, and 19 additional signs indicate suprasegmental qualities such as length, tone, stress, and intonation. We can see here a chart of English consonants containing IPA letters.

IPA chart of the English Consonants			La-bial	Dental, Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Pala-tal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal			m	n			ŋ	
Plosive, Affricate		fortis	p	t	ʈʂ		k	
		lenis	b	d	ɖʐ		g	
Fricative	sibilant	fortis		s	ʃ			
		lenis		z	ʒ			
	non-sibilant	fortis	f	θ			x	h
		lenis	v	ð				
Approximant				l ¹	r	j	w	

Phonemes

A phoneme of a language or dialect is an abstraction of a speech sound or of a group of different sounds which are all perceived to have the same function by speakers of that particular language or dialect. For example, the English word "through" consists of three phonemes: the initial "th" sound, the "r" sound, and an "oo" vowel sound. Notice that the phonemes in this and many other English words do not always correspond directly to the letters used to spell them (English orthography is not as phonemic or phonetic as that of many other languages to the degree of being almost antiphonetic).

The following table shows typical examples of the occurrence of the above consonant phonemes in words:

Fortis (voiceless)			Lenis (with voice)						
/p/	pit	/θ/	thigh	/b/	bit	/ð/	thy	/ŋ/	thing
/t/	tin	/s/	sap	/d/	din	/z/	zap	/j/	yes
/k/	cut	/ʃ/	dilution	/g/	gut	/ʒ/	delusion	/w/	we
/tʃ/	cheap	/x/	loch	/dʒ/	jeep	/m/	map	/r/	run
/f/	fat	/h/	ham	/v/	vat	/n/	thin	/l/	left

The number and distribution of phonemes in English vary from dialect to dialect, and also depend on the interpretation of the individual researcher. The number of consonant phonemes is generally put at 24 (or slightly more). The number of vowels is subject to greater variation; in the system presented in this book there are 20 vowel phonemes in Received Pronunciation, 14–16 in General American and 20–21 in Australian English. The pronunciation keys used in dictionaries generally contain a slightly greater number of symbols than this, to take account of certain sounds used in foreign words and certain noticeable distinctions that may not be—strictly speaking—phonemic.

IPA chart of the English Vowels	Front	Near-front	Central	Near-back	Back
Close	i • y		i • ʉ		ɯ • u
Near-close		ɪ • ʏ	ĩ • ö	ũ • ʊ	
Close-mid	e • ø		ə • ɵ		ɤ • o
Mid	ɛ • ɘ		ə • ɜ		ɯ • ɤ
Open-mid	ɛ • æ		ɜ • ɛ		ʌ • ɔ
Near-open	æ •		ɐ • ɛ		
Open	a • ɶ		ä • ʊ		ɑ • ɒ

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The following double-table shows typical examples of the occurrence of the sound range of vowel phonemes in words:

Example	Sound		Example	Sound		Example	Sound	
trap	æ		kit	ɪ		face	eɪ	
bath	ɑ:	æ	fleece	i:	i	price	aɪ	
palm		ɑ	dress	e	ɛ	choice	ɔɪ	
lot	ɒ	ɔ	strut	ʌ		goat	əʊ	oʊ
cloth			foot	ʊ		mouth	aʊ	
thought	ɔ:		goose	u:	u			

Example	Sound		Example	Sound		Example	Sound	
start	ɑ:(r)	ɑr	near	ɪə(r)	ɪr	comma	ə	
nurse	ɜ:(r)	ɜr	cure	ʊə(r)	ʊr	letter	ə(r)	ər
north	ɔ:(r)	ɔr	square	eə(r)	ɛr	happy	i	
force		ɔr, ɔʊr				Jamie	i	

British, Australian and American English Comparison

The following tables show the vowel phonemes of three standard varieties of English. I am going to show you here the notation system used for British Pronunciation (also known as "Received Pronunciation" or just "RP"), Australian Pronunciation and North American Pronunciation. Mind that this illustration should not be taken as an absolute fact. There are "typical British sound patterns" used by speakers in the United States and Canada as well as "typical American sound patterns" used in the western parts of the United Kingdom and Ireland. Australia and New Zealand follow more or less the typical British sound patterns.

The feature descriptions "Front, Central, Back" describe in what part of the mouth the sound is mainly formed. The features "Close, Mid, Open, Diphthongs, Triphthongs" describe what kind of sound it is.

British Pronunciation						
Front		Central		Back		
short	long	short	long	short	long	
Close	ɪ	i:		ʊ	u:	
Mid	e ¹		ə	ɜ:		ɔ:
Open	æ		ʌ ²		ɒ	ɑ:
Diphthongs	eɪ aɪ ɔɪ aʊ əʊ ɪə eə ʊə					
Triphthongs	(eɪə aɪə ɔɪə aʊə əʊə)					

Australian Pronunciation						
Front		Central		Back		
short	long	short	long	short	long	
Close	ɪ	i:		ʊ:	ʊ	o:
Mid	e	e:	ə	ɜ:	ɔ	
Open	æ	æ:	ɐ	ɐ:		
Diphthongs	æɪ ɐɐ ɔɪ æɔ əʊ ɪə (ʊə)					

North American Pronunciation						
Front		Central		Back		
lax	tense	lax	tense	lax	tense	
Close	ɪ	i		ʊ	u	
Mid	ɛ		ə (3)		ɔ	
Open	æ		(ʌ) ²		ɑ	
Diphthongs	eɪ aɪ ɔɪ aʊ oʊ					

1. British transcriptions use /e/ rather than /ɛ/ largely for convenience and historical tradition; it does not necessarily represent a different sound from the North American phoneme, although the British vowel may be described as somewhat less open than the American one.
2. Although the notation /ʌ/ is used for the vowel of **strut** in British Pronunciation and North American Pronunciation, the actual pronunciation is closer to a near-open central vowel [ɐ]. The symbol (ʌ) continues to be used for reasons of tradition (it was historically a back vowel) and because it is still back in some other varieties.

The differences between these tables can be explained as follows:

- In North American Pronunciation, the vowels [ə], [ʌ] and [ɜ] may be considered allophones of a single phoneme, since they occur in complementary distribution: [ə] in unstressed syllables (also r-coloured [ə-]), [ʌ] in stressed syllables not before [r], and [ɜ] in stressed syllables before [r] (that is r-coloured [ɜ-]).
- North American lacks a phoneme corresponding to British /ɒ/ (**lot**, **cloth**), instead using /ɑ/ in the **lot** words and generally /ɔ/ in the **cloth** words. In a few North American accents, namely in Eastern New England (Boston), Western Pennsylvania (Pittsburgh), and to some degree in Pacific Northwest (Seattle, Portland) and Canadian English, **lot** words do not have the vowel of **palm** (the *father–bother* merger has not occurred) but instead merge with **cloth** / **thought**.
- The different notations used for the vowel of **goat** in British and North American (/əʊ/ and /oʊ/) reflect a difference in the most common phonetic realisations of that vowel.

- The triphthongs given in the British table are usually regarded as sequences of two phonemes (a diphthong plus /ə/); however, in British, these sequences frequently undergo smoothing into single diphthongs or even monophthongs.
- The different notations used here for some of the Australian vowels reflect the phonetic realisation of those vowels in Australian: a central [ɜ:] rather than [u:] in **goose**, a more closed [e] rather than [ɛ] in **dress**, an open-mid [ɔ] rather than traditional British [ɒ] in **lot** and **cloth**, a close-mid [o:] rather than mid [ɔ:] in **thought**, **north** and **force**, an opener [ɐ] rather than somewhat closer [ʌ] in **strut**, a fronted [ɛ:] rather than [ɑ:] in **calm** and **start**, and somewhat different pronunciations of most of the diphthongs. Note that central [ɜ:] in **goose** and open-mid [ɔ] in **lot** are possible realisations in modern British Pronunciation; in case of the latter vowel, it is even more common than the traditional open [ɒ].
- The Australian monophthong /e:/ corresponds to the British diphthong /eə/ (**square**).
- Australian has the *bad–lad* split, with distinctive short and long variants in various words of the **trap** set: a long phoneme /æ:/ in words like *bad* contrasts with a short /æ/ in words like *lad*. (A similar split is found in the accents of some speakers in southern England.)
- The vowel /ʊə/ is often omitted from descriptions of Australian, as for most speakers it has split into the long monophthong /o:/ (e.g. *poor*, *sure*) or the sequence /ɜ:.ə/ (e.g. *cure*, *lure*).

Other points to be noted are these:

- The vowel /æ/ is coming to be pronounced more open (approaching [a]) by many modern British speakers. In North American speech, however, there is a tendency for it to

become more closed, tenser and even diphthongised (to something like [eə]), particularly in certain environments, such as before a nasal consonant. Some American accents, for example those of New York City, Philadelphia and Baltimore, make a marginal phonemic distinction between /æ/ and /eə/, although the two occur largely in mutually exclusive environments.

- A significant number of words (the **bath** group) have /æ/ in North American, but /ɑ:/ in British (and mostly /e:/ in Australian).
- Most speakers in Canada outside of the Maritime Provinces, and some speakers in the United States, do not distinguish /ɑ/ from /ɔ/, except before /r/ (like in the *cot-caught* merger). However, evidence suggests that in dialects without the merger /ɔ:r/ and /ɑ:/ may not actually be assonant, especially in dialects with the *horse-hoarse* merger.
- In American and Canadian (which are rhotic accents, where /r/ is pronounced in positions where it does not precede a vowel), many of the vowels can be r-coloured by way of realisation of a following /r/. This is often transcribed phonetically using a vowel symbol with an added retroflexion diacritic [~]; thus the symbol [ə̞] has been created for an r-coloured schwa (sometimes called *schwa*) as in **letter**, and the vowel of **start** can be modified to make [ɑ̞] so that the word *start* may be transcribed [stɑ̞t]. Alternatively, the **start** vowel might be written [stɑ̞t] to indicate an r-coloured offglide. The vowel /ɜ/ (as in **nurse**) is generally always r-coloured in these dialects, and this can be written [ɜ̞] (or as a syllabic [ɹ]).
- In RP and other dialects, many words from the **cure** group are coming to be pronounced by an increasing number of speakers with the **north** vowel (so *sure* is often pronounced

like **shore**). Also the British vowels /ɛə/ and /ʊə/ may be monophthongised to [ɛ:] and [ʊ:] respectively.

The vowels of **fleece** and **goose** are commonly pronounced as narrow diphthongs, approaching [ɪi] and [ʊu], in British. Near-British speakers may have particularly marked diphthongisation of the type [eɪ] and [əu ~ əʊ], respectively. In North American, the pronunciation varies between a monophthong and a diphthong

Language Study and English Dictionaries

Some language study programmes use the IPA to teach pronunciation. For example, in Russia (and earlier in the Soviet Union) and mainland China, textbooks for children and adults for studying English and French consistently use the IPA. Many British dictionaries, including the Collins Concise Dictionary, the Oxford English Dictionary and some learner's dictionaries such as the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary and the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, now use the International Phonetic Alphabet to represent the pronunciation of words. However, most American (and some British) volumes use one of a variety of pronunciation respelling systems, intended to be more comfortable for readers of English. For example, the respelling systems in many American dictionaries (such as Merriam-Webster) use ⟨y⟩ for IPA [j] and ⟨sh⟩ for IPA [ʃ], reflecting common representations of those sounds in written English, using only letters of the English Roman alphabet and variations of them. (In IPA, [y] represents the sound of the French ⟨u⟩ (as in *tu*), and [ʃ] represents the pair of sounds in *grasshopper*.)

The fact that many publishers use their very own IPA variation leads to the consequence that IPA has several disadvantages in regard of practicability and use - particularly for young learners:

1. Most native speakers are not familiar with all variations of the IPA characters. So when a learner writes down an IPA character in order to hear the sound of it from a native speaker, they will probably get no response.
2. Most languages and dialects, yes, even many textbooks use own variations of the IPA characters which leads to a grave inconsistency among all those different IPA variations.
3. The IPA characters are considered difficult to learn because a lot of characters have similar forms and are therefore hard to recognise. And even if a native speaker is able to read those characters, he or she might not agree with the presented sound as they speak a different dialect or accent. Just bear in mind IPA is supposed to represent the so-called standard language but over 90% of all English speakers **do not** speak any of those standard languages!
4. A user of a computer would be potentially hampered by the fact that most computers cannot display IPA characters properly. They just display question marks, little squares or anything like that. The computer user has to undergo a long act of schooling to make their computer display all needed IPA characters.
5. And even when a computer is able to display IPA characters, there is the problem of typing them which is a very awkward procedure in which the user has to access the insert mode from the computers task bar, or the user has to learn by heart hundreds of ASCII input numbers that represent each single IPA character so that it can be typed on a keyboard.

To sum up, IPA is generally unsuitable for children and other learners who want to learn English quickly. They do not want to become language scientists but confident users of English.

Phonics

In order to serve the needs of ordinary learners and users, teachers created a series of systems which are known as "Phonics". The word "Phonics" is an artificial word made out of "phonetic" and "phonemic" which are both of Greek origin and mean "sound" and "make sounds". It is also an obsolete word for "acoustics". Phonics is a family of phonics instruction that includes the methods of both Synthetic Phonics and Analytical Phonics.

Systematic Phonics (UK) or Blended Phonics (US), also known as Synthetic Phonics or Inductive Phonics, is a method of teaching reading which first teaches the letter sounds and then builds up to blending these sounds together to achieve full pronunciation of whole words. This Phonics method is called "systematic" because the letters, and the sounds they relate to, are taught in a specific sequence; as opposed to incidentally or on a 'when-needed' basis. Systematic phonics does not include methods such as embedded phonics and phonics mini lessons which are found in the whole language approach and the Balanced Literacy approach. It is not clear, however, why the phonics taught in these approaches cannot be systematic.

Synthetic or Systematic Phonics

Synthetic phonics teaches the phonemes (sounds) associated with the graphemes (letters) at the rate of about six sounds per week. The sounds are taught in isolation then blended together (i.e. synthesised), all-through-the-word. For example, children might be taught a short vowel sound (e.g. /a/) in addition to some consonant sounds (e.g. /s/, /t/, /p/). Then the children are taught words with these sounds (e.g. sat,

pat, tap, at). They are taught to pronounce each phoneme in a word, then to blend the phonemes together to form the word (e.g. /s/ - /a/ - /t/; "sat"). Sounds are taught in all positions of the words, but the emphasis is on all-through-the-word segmenting and blending from week one. It does not teach whole words as shapes (initial sight vocabulary) prior to learning the alphabetic code.

Synthetic phonics develops phonemic awareness along with the corresponding letter shapes. It involves the children rehearsing the writing of letter shapes alongside learning the letter/s-sound correspondences preferably with the tripod pencil grip. Dictation is a frequent teaching technique from letter level to word spelling, including nonsense words (e.g. choy and feep) and eventually extending to text level. It does not teach letter names until the children know their letter/s-sound correspondences thoroughly and how to blend for reading and segment for spelling. Often when letter names are introduced it is through singing an alphabet song.

Synthetic phonics teaches phonics at the level of the individual phoneme from the outset; not syllables and not onset and rime. Synthetic phonics does not teach anything about reading as a meaning-focused process, raising concerns that it addresses part of the reading process only. It highlights decoding and pronunciation of words only. Teachers are to put accuracy before speed. Fluency (i.e. speed, accuracy, expression, and comprehension) will come with time, proponents argue but the research into this is equivocal.

Synthetic phonics involves the teaching of the transparent alphabet (e.g. /k/ as in "cat") before progressing onto the opaque alphabet (e.g. /k/ as in "school"). In other words, children are taught steps which are straightforward and 'work' before being taught the complications and

variations of pronunciation and spelling of the full alphabetic code. It introduces irregular words and more tricky words (defined as words which cannot be pronounced phonically – English has a surprisingly large number of these, usually the commonest words of all such as 'to', 'of', etc.) slowly and systematically after a thorough introduction of the transparent alphabet code (learning the 44 letter/s-sound correspondences to automaticity and how to blend for reading and segment for spelling). Phonics application still works at least in part in such words, claim supporters of that method.

Synthetic phonics involves a heavy emphasis on hearing the sounds all-through-the-word for spelling and not an emphasis on "look, cover, write, check". This latter, visual form of spelling plays a larger part with unusual spellings and spelling variations and its effectiveness as a strategy to teach spelling has been supported by research. Teachers read a full range of literature with the children and ensure that all children have a full range of experience of activities associated with literacy such as role play, drama, poetry, but they are not allowed to attempt to 'read' text which is beyond them, resulting in quite an impoverished reading diet.

Typical programme

- learning letter sounds (as distinct from the letter names);
The teacher for example introduces the letter "M" as **mmm** not **em**, the "S" as **sss** not **es**, the "F" as **fff** not **ef**. The letter names can be taught later but should not be taught in the early stages.
- learning the 40+ sounds and their corresponding letters or letter groups together with lots of word examples.

Here you can see the Phonics teaching contents, the **English 40+ phonemes** with some of their common "sound pattern" representations. (This is based on the British pronunciation. The number and mixture of the **40+ phonemes** will vary for other English speaking countries):

Vowels and some typical word examples:

/a/ mat, rat, fat
/ae/ ape, baby, rain, tray, they, eight
/air/ square, bear
/ar/ jar, far
/e/ peg, bread
/ee/ sweet, me, thee, beach, key, pony
/eer/ deer, dear, hear
/er/ computer, teacher, actor, doctor, successor
/i/ pig, wanted
/ie/ kite, wild, light, fly
/o/ orange, quality
/oa/ oak, rope, bow, piano
/oi/ coin, boy
/oo (short)/ book, look, would, put
/oo (long)/ moon, soup, crew, blue, fruit, few
/ow/ down, house
/or/ fork, ball, sauce, law,
/u/ plug, glove
/ur/ burn, teacher, work, first
/ue/ tune, unicorn, hue
/uh/ button, shorten, lengthen, hidden

Consonants and some typical word examples:

/b/ **boy**, **rabbit**, **rub**, **rubber**, **blabber**
 /c/ /k/ **cat**, **key**, **duck**, **school**, **quit**
 /ch/ **chip**, **watch**, **statue**
 /d/ **dog**, **ladder**, **dish**, **food**
 /f/ **fish**, **coffee**, **photo**, **tough**
 /g/ **gate**, **egg**, **ghost**
 /h/ **hat**, **whole**, **who**, **whom**, **whose**, **hotel**
 /j/ **jet**, **giant**, **cage**, **bridge**, **garage**, **gadget**
 /ks/ **fix**, **mix**, **box**, **x-ray**
 /l/ **lip**, **bell**, **sample**, **love**, **loath**, **loaf**
 /m/ **man**, **hammer**, **comb**
 /n/ **nut**, **dinner**, **knee**, **gnat**
 /ng/ **thing**, **ring**, **singer**, **finger**, **fling**
 /p/ **pan**, **happy**, **pole**
 /r/ **rat**, **cherry**, **write**, **roll**
 /s/ **sun**, **dress**, **house**, **city**, **mice**, **lice**
 /sh/ **ship**, **mission**, **station**, **chef**
 /t/ **tap**, **letter**, **debt**
 /th/ **thrush**, **thorn**, **thead**, **threat**
 /th/ **that**, **those**, **thou**, **thee**, **thy**, **there**, **this**, **these**
 /v/ **vet**, **sleeve**, **vase**, **wave**, **valve**
 /w/ **wet**, **wheel**, **queen**
 /y/ **yes**, **new**, **few**
 /z/ **zip**, **fizz**, **sneeze**, **is**, **cheese**
 /gz/ **exist**, **example**
 /zh/ **treasure**, **measure**, **leisure**

Extensions:

The system of the English 40+ phonemes can later be extended to common syllables such as prefixes (com-, con-, de-, dis-, ex-, in, re-, tele-, etc.) and suffixes (-less, -ness, -ly, -like, -hood, -ship, -tion, etc.). In this context it is important to mention that the learners need a full explanation what those endings mean in general.


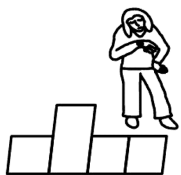
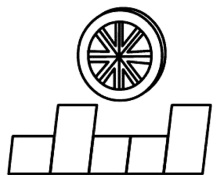
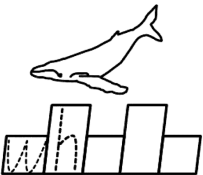
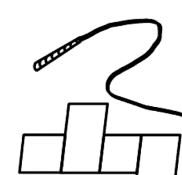




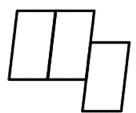

Analytical Phonics

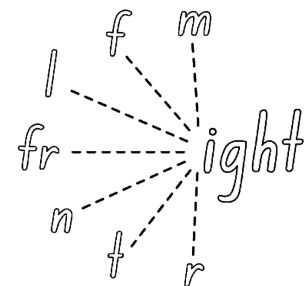




Analytical phonics practitioners do not teach children to pronounce sounds "in isolation" as is the practice with Synthetic Phonics, but try to ensure that sounds and letters are taught in meaningful contexts. Furthermore, consonant blends (separate, adjacent consonant phonemes) are taught as units (e.g., in the word shrouds the shr would be taught as a unit). Some analytical phonics programmes (also called "analogy phonics") teach children to break-down words into their common components which are referred to as the "**onset**" and the "**rhyme**". In the word "ship", "sh" is the "onset" and "ip" is the "rhyme" (the part starting with the vowel). In other words, analytical phonics teaches the child to say /sh/ - /ip/ (ship) and /sh/ - /op/ (shop), whereas synthetic phonics teaches the child only to say /sh/ - /i/ - /p/ (ship) and /sh/ - /o/ - /p/ (shop).

The approach through *onsets* and *rhymes* was developed on the basis of a very rigorous and hugely influential research programme by Professor Usha Goswami, of the University of Cambridge. Phonics is about recognising **sound** and **spelling**. In analytical phonics, children are also taught to find the similarities among words (e.g. man, can, tan, fan, and ran), thus developing their analogical reasoning.

The 3 main "drill principles" should contain:

- learning to read words (either written on the blackboard or shown on flashcards) using sound blending.
- reading sentences and little stories on flash cards featuring the words the students have learned to speak out the sounds.
- demonstration exercises on worksheets to show the learners comprehend the sentences or stories (on the next page we can see 2 examples for the onset **wh** and the rhyme **ight**).

Name: _____		Date: _____	
	whip _____ where _____ when _____ while _____ wheel _____	why _____ whack _____ whence _____ white _____ what _____	
			
Read, then draw a line to match the correct picture.			
 is my hat?			
I sing  I work.			
 are you crying?			

Name: _____		Date: _____	
Word Family "ight" 		fight _____ tight _____ right _____ might _____ fright _____	
 __ight	 _ight	 _ight	 _ight
Write these "ight" words in sentences:			
right _____ frighten _____ tighten _____ night _____			
Write the missing "ight" words:		Write the "ight" words in alphabetical order:	
The mouse gave me a _____.		_____	
Turn the _____ on at _____.		_____	
It _____ rain tonight.		_____	
Please do not _____ with her.		_____	

British English Versus American English

Often I hear the question “What kind of English should I learn – British English or American English?” My answer is always the same: “It does not matter as both versions are the same language”. To be honest, there is almost no real difference between them and we native English speakers do not care much about it. We often do not even recognise where a conversation partner comes from until he or she tells us.

American English (AE) and British English (BE), which is also called “International English”, differ only slightly in phonology, phonetics, vocabulary, and, to a much lesser degree, grammar and orthography. The first large American dictionary, *An American Dictionary of the English Language*, was written by Noah Webster in 1828. Webster, who hated the British, intended to show that the United States, which was a relatively new country at the time, spoke a different dialect from that of Britain. Which was, of course, only wishful thinking at that time.

Differences in grammar are small and normally do not effect mutual intelligibility; these include: different use of some verbal auxiliaries; formal agreement with collective nouns; different preferences for the past forms of a few verbs (for example, AE/BE: learned/learnt, burned/burnt, snuck/sneaked, dove/dived); different prepositions and adverbs in certain contexts (for example, AE in school, BE at school); and whether or not a definite article is used, in very few cases (AE to the hospital, BE to hospital; contrast, however, AE actress Elizabeth Taylor, BE the actress Elizabeth Taylor). Often, these differences are

a matter of relative preferences rather than absolute rules; and most are not stable, since the two varieties are constantly influencing each other.

Historically, many types of American English can be found in old local dialects of the British Isles. Let us have a quick look what major dialects of English exist: English of Southern England, Northern England, English in Wales, Scotland and Ireland. When you listen to native speakers of those regions, you might recognise that American English sounds pretty much like the English spoken in Ireland. This has a strong reason: A large percentage of Americans (about 30%) can trace back their ancestry to Ireland. An even greater percentage (about 33%) falls to the German ancestry. In other words: About two third of all Americans have ancestors either from Ireland or Germany! The British ancestry makes just a bit over 10%. These numbers have consequences on the spoken English in America. In short, the sound of the words, the vowels (such as the a or e), the consonants (such as the r) sound like in Ireland and Wales, the intonation of sentences sound rather German. And almost all simplifications in writing are based on German writing rules too.

The American dialect itself has at least 3 distinguished dialects: South-west dialects, Midwest dialects and the dialects in the north-east parts of the United States which sound most similar to Standard English spoken in the South of England.

What about the other English-speaking countries? The English in Australia sound almost as in Southern England. English in southern

Canada sounds like the midwest dialect of the United States, in some parts of Canada we can hear British English.

Many people today know about American English even if they live in a country where another form of English is spoken. This is partly because people hear and read American English via the media, for example CNN television, and the Internet, where the most common form of English is American English. However, that cultural exchange also goes the other way round as Americans love to watch British films, BBC-documentaries and TV-series.

Some Differences In Detail

Differences in orthography are very small. The main differences are that American English uses spellings such as *flavor* for British *flavour*, *fiber* for *fibre*, *defense* for *defence*, *analyze* for *analyse*, *catalog* for *catalogue* and *traveling* for *travelling*. Noah Webster popularised such spellings in America, but he did not invent most of them. Rather, he chose already existing options on such grounds as simplicity, analogy or etymology. Other differences are due to the francophile tastes of 19th century Victorian England (for example they preferred *programme* for *program*, *manoeuvre* for *maneuver*, *cheque* for *check*, etc.). AE uses *-ize* in words like *realize*. BE prefers *-ise*, but also uses *-ize*.

AE sometimes favours words that are morphologically more complex, whereas BE uses clipped forms, such as AE *transportation* and BE *transport* or where the British form is a back-formation, such as AE

burglarize and BrE *burgle* (from burglar). It should, however, be noted that while individuals usually use one or the other, both forms will be widely understood and mostly used alongside each other within the two systems. To be honest, the difference between American English and British English is much smaller as, for example, English spoken in Scotland and in the South of England.

Americans tend to prefer the ***Simple Past*** tense while British and International English speakers normally use the ***Present Perfect***.

Spelling In American English

There are many words that sound the same between American English and British English, but are spelled differently. Many of these differences can be traced to the works of Noah Webster. For example:

Words originally from the French that end in *-our* in British English (behaviour, colour, honour, neighbour, etc.) end in *-or* in American English (behavior, color, honor, neighbor).

Words of French origin that end in *-re* in British English (metre, centre) end in *-er* in American English. In these cases Canadian usage is to keep the British (and French) spelling.

Verbs that end in *-ise* in British English (criticise, realise) end in *-ize* in American English (criticize, organize, realize). However, the *-ize* ending is optional in British English, and is shown as an alternative in British dictionaries.

One of the changes introduced by Noah Webster is the change of the double “*l*” from words like “travelled” to “traveled”.

There are also two major styles of English punctuation: American (commonly followed also in Canada) and British (commonly followed also in Australia and New Zealand). Over the years, these two styles have converged.

The few major differences that remain are described below.

Titles: *Mr.*, *Mrs.* *Ms.*, and *Dr.* all take dots or periods in American English. In British English, the dots are omitted.

Dates: British usage omits the Apostrophe in the plural form of dates (e.g., 1980s), whereas the American practice more often includes it (e.g., 1980's). The British style is gaining ground in America, however.

There is one important distinction between American and British usage when it comes to dates. American usage puts the month first, followed by the day, and then the year. Hence, *12/5/2017* means December 5, 2017, in American usage. The British practice (followed in most of the world) is to put the day first, followed by the month. Hence, *12/5/2017* means 12 May, 2017, in British usage.

Time: British writers use one single dot between the hours and minutes when writing the time (e.g., 10.30). Americans use a colon (e.g., 10:30).

Quotations: American style uses double quotes (“”) for initial quotations, then single quotes (‘’) for quotations within the initial

quotation: “Economic systems,” according to Professor White, “are an inevitable byproduct of civilization, and are, as John Doe said, ‘with us whether we want them or not.’”

British style uses single quotes (‘’) for initial quotations, then double quotes (“”) for quotations within the initial quotation: ‘Economic systems’, according to Professor Blake, ‘are an inevitable byproduct of civilization, and are, as John Doe said, “with us whether we want them or not”’.

The above examples also show that the American style places commas and full stops inside the quotation marks, even if they are not in the original material. British style (more sensibly) places unquoted periods and commas outside the quotation marks. For all other punctuation, the British and American styles are identical, unless the punctuation is part of the quoted material, it goes outside the quotation marks.

British-American Spelling Differences

There are several areas in which British and American spelling are different. These are the main ones to be aware of.

Words ending in -re

British English words that end in *-re* often end in *-er* in American English: cent*re* – cent*er*, fib*re* – fib*er*, lit*re* – lit*er*, theat*re* - theat*er* **or** theat*re*, met*re* - met*er*. The American spelling “meter” can cause misunderstandings as for a mechanical or electronic counter for the

consumption of gas or water in a household is also called “meter”. The “meterman” is a worker of the gas/electricity supply company who reads the meter, so the company knows how much you have to pay.

Words ending in -our

British English words ending in **-our** usually end in **-or** in American English: col**our** - col**or**, fav**our** - fav**or**, flav**our** – flav**or**, hum**our** – hum**or**, lab**our** - lab**or**, neighb**our** - neighb**or**.

Words ending in -ize or -ise

Verbs in British English that can be spelled with either **-ize** or **-ise** at the end are always spelled with **-ize** at the end in American English: apolog**ize** or apolog**ise** apolog**ize** organ**ize** or organ**ise** organ**ize** recogn**ize** or recogn**ise** recogn**ize**. A discussion about what might be right is rather useless as for **-ize** was used for words of Greek origin and **-ise** for words of Roman origin.

Remark: Over 95% of those spellings appear in words of **Roman / Latin** origin. The use of a **z** might be considered wrong from an etymologists point of view, quite simply because the Romans never used the Greek letter **z** in Roman words but always an **s**.

Words ending in -yse

Verbs in British English that end in **-yse** are always spelled **-yze** in American English: anal**yse** anal**ylze** paral**yse** paral**ylze**

Words ending in a Vowel plus l

In British spelling, verbs ending in a vowel plus **l** double the **l** when adding endings that begin with a vowel. In American English, the **l** is not doubled. *travel*: travel**led** travel**ed** travel**ling** travel**ing** travel**ler** travel**er**. OR *fuel*: fuel**led** fuel**ed** fuel**ling** fuel**ing**

Words spelled with double Vowels

British English words that are spelled with the double vowels **ae** or **oe** are just spelled with an **e** in American English: p**ae**diatric p**edi**atric **oe**strogen **e**strogen man**oe**uvre man**eu**ver leuk**ae**mia leuk**e**mia. Note that in American English, certain terms, such as arch**ae**ology, keep the **ae** spelling as standard, although the spelling with just the **e** (arch**e**ology) is usually acceptable as well.

Nouns ending with -ence

Some nouns that end with **-ence** in British English are spelled **-ense** in American English: def**ence** - def**ense**, lic**ence** - lic**ense**, off**ence** - off**ense**, pret**ence** - pret**ense**. For the related verb, the spelling is just the otherway round. The british verb of the noun def**ence** is def**ense**.

Nouns ending with -ogue

Some nouns that end with **-ogue** in British English end with either **-og** or **-ogue** in American English: anal**ogue** - anal**og** or anal**ogue**, catal**ogue** - catal**og** or catalogue - dial**ogue**, dial**og** or dial**ogue**.

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The distinctions here are not hard and fast. The spelling *analogue* is acceptable but not very common in American English; *catalog* has become the US norm, but *catalogue* is not uncommon; *dialogue* is still preferred over *dialog*.

Advice to teachers: Please **do not mark** either spelling as “**wrong**” in the students’ exams. Be sensible and fair as British and American spellings are considered correct by all native English speakers!

Table of British and American word differences

British English	American English
anaemia	anemia
anaesthesia	anesthesia
abridgement	abridgment
acknowledgement	acknowledgment
accelerator	gas pedal, accelerator
aerial (TV, radio)	antenna, aerial
aeroplane	airplane
all right	alright
Alsatian	German shepherd
although	altho
American Indian	Native American
anorak	jacket, parka
anti-clockwise	counter-clockwise
at the weekend	on the weekend
aubergine	eggplant
articulated lorry	trailer truck

autumn	fall, autumn
bank holiday	national holiday, federal holiday, legal holiday
bap	hamburger bun
barrister, solicitor	lawyer, attorney
base rate	prime rate
bat (ping pong)	paddle
bath	bathtub
to bath	to bathe
bathroom	bathroom, restroom, washroom
beetroot	beet
benefitted	benefited
big dipper	roller coaster
bill (in restaurants)	check (in restaurants), bill
bill, account	account
billion = million million	billion = thousand million
bin, dustbin	garbage can, trash can
biro	ball-point pen
biscuit	cookie
black or white? (coffee)	with or without? (coffee)
blackleg, scab	scab
black treacle	molasses
blind (window)	shade
block of flats	apartment building, apartment house
blue jeans	dungarees, jeans
bonnet (car)	hood (car)

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to book	make reservation
bonnet (clothing)	hat
boot (car)	trunk (car)
bootlace, shoelace	shoestring
bowler, hard hat	derby
braces	suspenders
break (school)	recess
(round) brackets	parentheses
briefs, underpants	shorts, jockey shorts
broad bean	lima bean
broolly, umbrella	umbrella
bumper (car)	bumper, fender
bureau de change	currency exchange
centre	center
cheque	check
candy floss	cotton candy
car park	parking lot
caravan	trailer
caretaker	janitor
catalogue	catalog
catapult	slingshot
cattle grid	Texas gate
centre	center
chairman (business)	president
chemist	druggist
chemist's shop, pharmacy	drugstore, pharmacy
chips	French fries

cinema	movie house, theater
city centre	downtown, city center
cloakroom	checkroom, coatroom
cloakroom attendant	hat check girl
clothes peg	clothespin
colour	color
condom, contraceptive	rubber
connexion	connection
conscription	draft
convoy	caravan
cooker	stove
corn flour	corn starch
corporation, local authority	city, municipal government
court shoe	pump
(bathing) costume	swimsuit
cosy	cozy
cot (baby)	crib
cotton wool	cotton ball
courgette	zucchini
crisps	potato chips
crossroads	crossroad (in the country) intersection (town and country)
cul-de-sac	dead end (street)
curriculum vitae (CV)	résumé, curriculum vitae (CV) (depending on the professional field)

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cupboard	closet
curtains	drapes
defence	defense
dialogue	dialog, dialogue
dinner jacket	tux, tuxedo
director (company)	manager
directory enquiries	directory assistance, information assistance
district	precinct
diversion	detour
double cream	heavy cream
drain (indoors)	sewer pipe
draught	draft
draughts (boardgame)	checkers
drawing pin	thumb tack
dressing gown	(bath) robe
drink driving	drunk driving
driving licence	driver's license
dual carriageway	divided highway
dummy	pacifier
duvet	comforter
dynamo	generator
encased in	incased in
enclose	inclose
enfold	infold
engaged	busy
envelope	envelop

earth wire	ground wire
enquiry	inquiry
estate car	station wagon
everywhere	everyplace, everywhere
expiry date	expiration date
fair (fun)	carnival
fancy dress	costumes
Father Christmas	Santa Claus
favour	favor
favourite	favorite
fibre	fiber
to fill in	to fill out
filling station , petrol station	gas station
film	film, movie
fire brigade	fire department
first floor	second floor
fish-fingers	fish-sticks
fitted carpet	wall to wall carpet
flannel	face cloth, wash cloth
flat	apartment (flat: is used for apartment on one floor only)
flavour	flavor
flex	electric cord, wire
football	soccer
fortnight	two weeks
foyer	lobby, foyer
fringe	bangs

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from Monday to Friday	from Monday through Friday, from Monday to Friday
full stop (punctuation)	period
gallery (theatre)	balcony
gangway	aisle
gaol	jail
garden	yard
gear lever	gear shift
Gents	Men's Room
giddy	dizzy
gipsy	gypsy
give a bell (to phone)	give a buzz
goods train	freight train
goods truck (railway)	freight truck
goose pimples	goose bumps
gramophone, record player	phonograph, record player
greenfingers	green thumb
grey	gray
to grill	to broil
ground floor	first floor, ground floor
guard (railway)	conductor
gym shoes, plimsolls, trainers	sneakers, tennis shoes
hair grip, kirby	grip, bobbie pin
hallo	hello
handbag	purse, pocket book
hardware	housewares

harbour	harbor
headmaster, headteacher	principal
to hire	to rent
hire purchase	installment plan
hockey	field hockey
holiday	vacation
honour	honor
hoover	vacuum cleaner
humour	humor
ice, sorbet	sherbet
iced lolly	popsicle
icing sugar	powdered sugar, confectioner's sugar
identification parade	line-up
immersion heater (electric)	water heater
indicator	turn signal
inflexion	inflection
inverted commas, quotation marks	quotation marks
interval	intermission
ironmonger	hardware store
jab (injection)	shot
jacket potato	baked potato
jewellery	jewelery
Joe Bloggs	John Doe
joint (meat)	roast
judgement	judgment

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jug	pitcher
jumble sale	yard sale
jumper, sweater, pullover	sweater, pullover
kidnapped	kidnaped
kilometre	kilometer
kiosk, box (telephone)	telephone booth
kipper	smoked herring
knickers (girl's)	underwear, panties
knock up (tennis)	warm up
knock up (call from sleep)	knock up (American slang: "to get a woman pregnant")
label	tag
ladybird	ladybug
larder	pantry
lavatory, toilet, loo, w.c.,	john, bathroom, washroom
lay-by	pull-off
to lay the table	to set the table
leader (leading article in newspaper)	editorial
leader (1st violin in orchestra)	concert master
left luggage office	baggage room
let	lease, rent
letter box	mail box
level crossing (railway)	grade crossing
licence	license
lift	elevator
limited (company)	incorporated

litre	liter
lodger	roomer
lorry	truck
lost property	lost and found
mackintosh	raincoat
made to measure	custom made
maize	corn
mammy, mammie	mommy
managing director, MD	CEO (chief executive officer), general manager
manoeuvre	maneuver
marrow	squash
mashed potato	mashed potatoes
match	game
maths	math
methyated spirits	denatured alcohol
mileometer	odometer
mobile (phone)	cellphone
motorbike	motorcycle
motorway, speedway, dual carriage way	freeway, highway, throughway, expressway, super highway, interstate
mould	mold
moustache	mustache
mum	mom
nappy	diaper
national insurance number	social security number

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

neat (drink)	straight
neighbour	neighbor
net curtains	sheers, under drapes
newsagent	news dealer, news stand
note	bill
notice board	bulletin board
nought	zero
number plate	license plate
a pack of cards	a deck of cards
a packet of cigarettes	a package of cigarettes
offence	offense
off license, wine merchant	liquor store
oven cloth, gloves	pot holder, oven mitt
overtake (vehicle)	pass
pack (of cards)	deck (of cards)
packed lunch	sack lunch, bag lunch
panel beater	body shop
pants (boy's underwear)	underpants, shorts, underwear
paraffin	kerosene, kerosine
parcel	package
pavement, footpath	sidewalk
pedlar	peddler
personal call	person-to-person call
pedestrian crossing	crosswalk
pepper	bell pepper
petrol	gas, gasoline
phone box	phone booth

pillar box, letter box	mail box
plaster, elastoplast	bandaid
plough	plow
polo neck	turtle neck
post	mail
post(al) code	zip code
postman	mailman
postponement	raincheck
power point, point, socket	outlet, socket
practice	practise
pram, pushchair	baby carriage, baby buggy, stroller
prawn	shrimp
primary school	elementary school, grade school
programme	program
prison	penitentiary
public convenience	bathroom, restroom, washroom
public school	private school
pudding	dessert
pushchair	stroller
purse	change purse
put down, entered(goods)	bought, charged
put through (telephone)	connect
queue (n.)	line
to queue	to line up, stand in line
quid (money, 1 quid = 1 British Pound)	buck (money, 1 buck = 1 US-Dollar)
railway	railroad

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

rasher (bacon)	slice
reception	front desk
to ring	to call
road way	pavement
roof, hood (car)	top
roundabout	traffic circle, rotary
rucksack	backpack
rubber	eraser
rubbish	garbage, trash
saloon car	sedan
sceptical	skeptical
scribbling pad, block	scratch pad
sellotape	scotch tape, adhesive tape
semi-detached	duplex
share	stock
shattered	exhausted
shop	store
shop assistant	sales clerk
sick	nauseated
sideboard	buffet
sideboards (hair)	sideburns
silencer (car)	muffler
single ticket	one-way ticket
sitting room ,drawing room	living room
skipping rope	jump rope
skirting board	baseboard
sledge, toboggan	sled

smalls (washing)	underwear
smoulder	smolder
sofa	davenport, couch
solicitor	lawyer, attorney
sorbet	sherbet
Sorry.	Excuse me.
spanner	wrench, monkey wrench
spirits (drink)	liquor
sports day	fields day
spring onion	scallion, green onion
staff (academic)	faculty
stalls (theatre)	orchestra seats
stock	inventory
subway	underpass
sultana	raisin
sweet shop	candy store
stand (for public office)	run (for public office)
standard lamp	floor la mp
state school	public school
stone (fruit)	pit
sultana	raisin
surgical spirit	rubbing alcohol
suspender belt	garter belt
suspenders	garters
swede	turnip, rutabaga
sweet corn	corn
sweet shop, confectioner	candy store

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

sweets, chocolate	candy
Swiss roll	jelly roll
tadpole	pollywog
tap	faucet
taxi	cab
teat (baby's bottle)	nipple
tea trolley	tea cart
telegram	wire
term academic (3 in a year)	semester(2 in a year)
theatre	theater
timetable	schedule
telephone box	phone booth
tights	pantyhose
through	thru
tin	can
toilet, loo	bathroom, rest room
town centre	downtown, city center
torch	flashlight
traffic lights	stop lights, traffic signals, stop signals
trainers	sneakers
tram	streetcar
travelled	traveled
trolley	cart
trousers	pants, slacks
truncheon (police)	night stick
trunk call, long distance	long distance call

turnover	sales, revenue
turn-ups (trousers)	cuffs (pants)
tyre	tire
undergraduates: - 1st year - 2nd year - 3rd year - 4th year	undergraduates: - freshman - sophomore - junior - senior
underground, tube	subway
underlay	carpet pad
undertaker	mortician
unit trust	mutual fund
vest	undershirt
waggon	wagon
waistcoat	vest
wallet	billfold
wardrobe	closet
to wash	wash up
wing	fender
worshipped	worshipped
year	grade
zebra crossing	crosswalk
zip	zipper

A Short Manual To Mandarin Chinese And Pinyin

Pinyin was developed during the People's Republic of China era (from 1949). It was first approved by the Chinese government in 1958, and the International Organisation for Standardisation adopted it as a world standard in 1982. Pinyin means to “join together, or spell out, sounds”. Pinyin was developed for Chinese speakers and those learning standard Chinese pronunciation, and is an efficient way of representing Chinese sounds with the Roman alphabet. It serves the same purpose as the *international phonetic symbols* used in dictionaries to show how English words are pronounced.

Pinyin developed for Chinese and foreign students who want to learn Chinese. English speakers who try to pronounce pinyin words without any previous study will fail to do it correctly because about half of the letters in Pinyin sound different from typical English words, and most of the time the vowels have peculiar sounds. However, Pinyin is very regular and reflects Chinese sounds pretty truthfully.

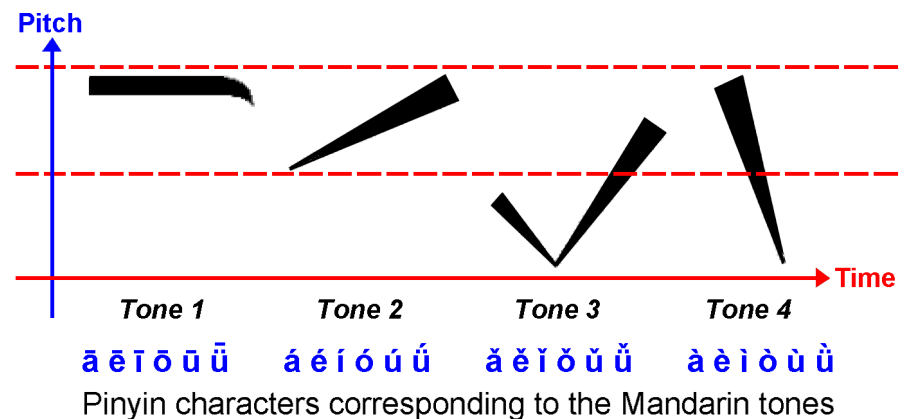
However, Pinyin is a useful tool for foreign teachers. The Chinese view their characters as the true Chinese written language, but Pinyin can be seen on many maps, road signs, and other notices. Pinyin is much easier to learn, use and remember than characters, particularly if tones are ignored. Pinyin notation can be thoroughly learnt in a few hours (though the tongue may not be fully trained in that time—that takes days or weeks of practice), but a working knowledge of Chinese characters (about 4,000 characters for common and 10,000 characters for advanced literacy) takes years of hard study.

Tones

All Chinese words have a *tone* of some sort. The Chinese language has four pronounced tones, which in Pinyin are marked with a little accent sign above the vowel to which they relate, and one short, less pronounced tone, called the “*light tone*”, which is given no tonal marker. There are mainly four tonal categories in pinyin: high, high rising, low falling-rising, high-falling, neutral:

1. The 1st tone is marked with a line (“*ā*”). This is a high, even and constant soprano tone.
2. The 2nd tone is marked with a rising line (“*á*”). This is a rising tone that grows stronger like in an English enquiry.
3. The 3rd tone is marked with a hook (“*ǎ*”). This tone is first falling and fading, then rising and growing strong.
4. The 4th tone is marked with a falling line (“*à*”). This is a quickly falling and fading tone which almost sounds angry.

The characters correspond precisely to the pitch of their tones:



The tone plays a very important role in the meaning of the characters. While distinguished tones in English reflect the emotions or intentions of the speaker, different tones in Mandarin will lead to a different meaning of each Chinese word. **Example:**

Tone	Example	Meaning
High	mā 妈	mother
High raising	má 麻	hemp
Low falling-raising	mǎ 马	horse
High-falling	mà 骂	scold
Medium neutral	ma 吗	acoustic question mark

In *unstressed syllables* the tone may be hardly noticeable. In such cases, no marking is put above any vowel. You may regard this as “tone zero”. The tone will usually end up more or less where the previous syllable ended. The tones could also be given alternative names according to what they sound like in English:

Tone number	Tone name	Tone symbol	Alternative writing	Alternative tone name
Tone 1	high tone	ā	a1	soprano tone
Tone 2	rising tone	á	a2	enquiring tone
Tone 3	falling - rising tone	ǎ	a3	sarcastic tone
Tone 4	falling tone	à	a4	emphatic tone
No tone number	light tone	a (no tone mark)	a	neutral tone

Often, Chinese is so fast and carelessly spoken that it is difficult to pick out individual tones. Inserting tones makes writing or typing Pinyin a rather tedious process. So be aware of the fact that Chinese words, when adopted into other languages, are relieved of their tones. Anyhow, let your students teach you Chinese pronunciation and meaning of the words, so they will quickly understand how difficult teaching can be and they learn to use English in a natural way!

Chinese Syllables

Pinyin is a Chinese system for transliterating Mandarin Chinese with 25 European characters (“**v**” is called “ei” and represents **ü** in typing). The pronunciation of most of the letters is similar to pronunciation to the European counterparts, but there are notable differences. Apart from the mentioned ā, ē, ī, ō, ū, ŭ; á, é, í, ó, ú, ú; ǎ, ě, ĭ, ǒ, ǔ, ǔ; à, è, ì, ò, ù, ù, you should pay special attention to the letters that are not pronounced as you would expect: “**c**”, “**ch**”, “**j**”, “**q**”, “**r**”, “**sh**”, “**x**”, “**z**” and “**zh**”!

The standard unit of the Chinese language is the syllable, not the word! Each Chinese character is spoken as one syllable. Chinese words are made up of one, two or more characters and hence one, two or more syllables. In Mandarin Chinese there are 21 Initials that begin with a Consonant (and 1 with a Vowel) and 37 Finals. Each syllable is either a “*Final*”, or an “*Initial*” followed by a “*Final*”. Combinations of *Initials* and *Finals* plus the special cases result in **413** possible combinations called *syllables*. Applying the four tones of Mandarin Chinese to this, a total of around 1,300 unique syllables are in use represented by about 50,000 Chinese characters.

LORD HENFIELD'S MANDARIN CHINESE PINYIN TABLE

Chinese syllables can be represented by Roman characters. The Pinyin system has been developed in the 1950s, based on earlier forms of romanisation, by the Chinese linguist Zhou Youguang. Pinyin (which means "spelling sounds") was published by the Chinese government in 1958 and had been revised several times. The International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) adopted Pinyin as the international standard in 1982. The system was adopted as the official standard in Taiwan in 2009, where it is generally referred to as the New Phonetic System. This Pinyin Table provides the complete listing of all 413 Pinyin syllables used in Mandarin. An empty cell in the table indicates that the corresponding syllable does not exist in Mandarin.

CATEGORY		(Vowels)		(Consonants)										INITIALS											
FINALS (Vowels)		sound	writing	b	p	m	f	d	t	n	l	g	k	h	j	q	x	zh	ch	sh	r	z	c	s	
	a	a	a	ba	pa	ma	fa	da	ta	na	la	ga	ka	ha					zha	cha	sha		za	ca	sa
		ai	ai	bai	pai	mai		dai	tai	nai	lai	gai	kai	hai					zhai	chai	shai		zai	cai	sai
		an	an	ban	pan	man	fan	dan	tan	nan	lan	gan	kan	han					zhan	chan	shan	ran	zan	can	san
		ang	ang	bang	pang	mang	fang	dang	tang	nang	lang	gang	kang	hang					zhang	chang	shang	rang	zang	cang	sang
		ao	ao	bao	pao	mao		dao	tao	nao	lao	gao	kao	hao					zhao	chao	shao	rao	zao	cao	sao
	e	e	e			me		de	te	ne	le	ge	ke	he					zhe	che	she	re	ze	ce	se
		ei	ei	bei	pei	mei	fei	dei		nei	lei	gei	kei	hei							shei		zei		
		en	en	ben	pen	men	fen			nen		gen	ken	hen					zhen	chen	shen	ren	zen	cen	sen
		eng	eng	beng	peng	meng	feng	deng	teng	neng	leng	geng	keng	heng					zheng	cheng	sheng	reng	zeng	ceng	seng
		er	er																						
	i*	i	yi	bi	pi	mi		di	ti	ni	li					ji	qi	xi	zhi	chi	shi	ri	zi	ci	si
		ia	ya								lia					jia	qia	xia							
		ian	yan	bian	pian	mian		dian	tian	nian	lian					jian	qian	xian							
		iang	yang							niang	liang					jiang	qiang	xiang							
		iao	yao	biao	piao	miao		diao	tiao	niao	liao					jiao	qiao	xiao							
		ie	ye	bie	pie	mie		die	tie	nie	lie					jie	qie	xie							
		in	yin	bin	pin	min				nin	lin					jin	qin	xin							
		ing	ying	bing	ping	ming		ding	ting	ning	ling					jing	qing	xing							
		iong	yong													jiong	qiong	xiong							
		iu	you			miu		diu		niu	liu					jiu	qiu	xiu							
	o	o	o	bo	po	mo	fo																		
		ong						dong	tong	nong	long	gong	kong	hong					zhong	chong		rong	zong	cong	song
		ou	ou		pou	mou	fou	dou	tou		lou	gou	kou	hou					zhou	chou	shou	rou	zou	cou	sou
	u**	u	wu	bu	pu	mu	fu	du	tu	nu	lu	gu	ku	hu					zhu	chu	shu	ru	zu	cu	su
		ua	wa									gua	kua	hua					zhua		shua				
		uai	wai									guai	kuai	huai						chuai	shuai				
		uan	wan					duan	tuan	nuan	luan	guan	kuan	huan					zhuan	chuan	shuan	ruan	zuan	cuan	suan
		uang	wang									guang	kuang	huang					zhuang	chuang	shuang				
		ueng	weng																						
		ui	wei					dui	tui			gui	kui	hui					zhui	chui	shui	rui	zui	cui	sui
		un	wen					dun	tun		lun	gun	kun	hun					zhun	chun	shun	run	zun	cun	sun
		uo	wo					duo	tuo	nuo	luo	guo	kuo	huo					zhuo	chuo	shuo	ruo	zuo	cuo	suo
	ü*	ü	yu							nǚ	lǚ					ju	qu	xu							
		üe	yue							nǚe	lǚe					jue	que	xue							
		üan	yuan													juan	quan	xuan							
ün		yun													jun	qun	xun								

Note: *When a final "i" or "ü" sound stands at the beginning of a syllable, it is then replaced by a "y".

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Note: **When a final "u" sound stands at the beginning of a syllable, it is then replaced by a "w".

Tables Of Pinyin Examples

For the Pinyin sounds I chose the most related English sounds:

Vowel Sounds

Pinyin	Pronunciation Range
a; (ang)	f a ther, t a sk, b a r; (ham b a re)
e; (eng)	g e t, w o rd, l e t; (g o ng)
i	i n, b ee , w i n, w i ng
i (after c, s, z; ch, sh, zh, r)	g i rl, b i rd
o	ad o re, d oo r, don't
u	f oo l, p oo r, t u ne
ü (writing rule: ü is written u after j, q, x)	as in French "bien u re", German "T ü r" (door), "T ü rk" (Turkish)

Consonant Sounds: *b* and *p*, *d* and *t* can sound similar, the *h* sounds often guttural as in Scots "loch", *x* is a sound between English *s* and *sh*.

Sound	as in English:	Sound	as in English:
b	<i>bay</i>	j	<i>jeep</i>
p	<i>pay</i>	q	<i>cheer</i>
m	<i>may</i>	x	she; between s and sh
f	<i>fair</i>	zh	<i>junk</i>
d	<i>day</i>	ch	<i>church</i>
t	<i>take</i>	sh	<i>shirt</i>
n	<i>nay</i>	r	<i>roll, rain, more</i>
l	<i>lay</i>	c	hats
g	<i>gay</i>	s	<i>say</i>
k	<i>kay</i>	y	<i>yea</i>
h	<i>hay, Scots loch</i>	w	<i>way</i>

Composites, Combinations: Mandarin has quite a few *diphthongs* (composite sounds) and *vowel* and *consonant* combinations:

Sound	as in English:	Sound	as in English:
er	are	iang	e+yang
ai	eye	ing	<i>sing</i>
ei	<i>eight</i>	iong	German <i>Jünger</i>
ao	<i>now</i>	ua	<i>guano</i>
ou	oh	uo	<i>wall</i>
an	<i>can</i>	uai	<i>wife</i>
en	British <i>turn</i>	uan	one
ang	German <i>Gang</i>	un	<i>went</i>
eng	<i>sung</i>	uang	oo+ahng
ong	German <i>Lunge</i>	üe	ü+eh
ia	<i>Asia</i>	üan	ü+an
ie	<i>yes</i>	ün	German <i>grün</i>
iao	<i>yeowl</i>	kongr	corn
iu	<i>yoke / Yukon</i>	wanr	w + far
ian	yen	dianr	d + yar
in	in		

Spelling The Alphabet: Chinese use the Pinyin rules also for spelling the Alphabet. Spoken Vowels have the *1st tone* and they are short. The **V** is not in use, it is called "*ei*". **U** and **W** have the same sound and name. **W** stands at the beginning, **U** in the middle of a word:

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
a	bo	ci	de	e	fo	ge	he	yi	ji	ke	le	me
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
ne	ou	po	qi	ri	si	te	wu	ei	wu	xi	yi	zi

The

English

Parts of

Speech

Noun for Things

Verb

Present Tense

Abstract Noun

Noun

Past Tense

Noun for Male

Adjective

Present Participle

Noun for Female

Adverb

Past Participle

Countable Noun

Determiner

Continuous Aspect

Uncountable Noun

Pronoun

Perfect Aspect

Proper Name

Preposition

Active Voice

Outside Noun

Conjunction

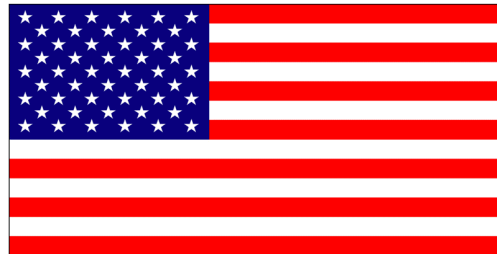
Passive Voice



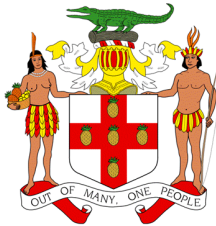
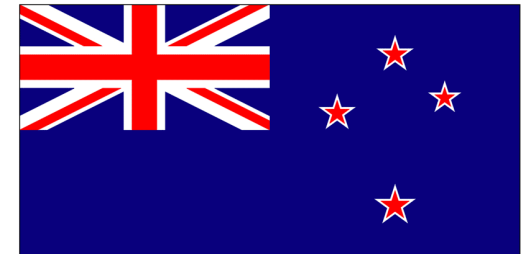
The Commonwealth of Australia



The United States of America



New Zealand



Jamaica



Canada



The Republic of South Africa



The United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are the main inheritors of British culture. Jamaica and South Africa symbolise all those non-British nations that are part of British culture with their English.

WORD CLASS OR PART OF SPEECH

In grammar, a *classification* or *part of speech* (also a word class, a lexical class, or a lexical category) is a linguistic *category* of words (or more precisely lexical items), which is generally defined by the way a word behaves in a sentence or in its form. Almost all languages have the lexical categories *Noun* and *Verb*, but beyond these there are significant variations in different languages. English words have been traditionally classified into these eight lexical categories, or parts of speech (and are still done so in most dictionaries):

Noun: *any abstract or concrete entity; a person (police officer, Michael), place (coastline, London), thing (necktie, television), idea (happiness), or quality (bravery)*

Determiners are **Articles** or other words that can specify a Noun.

Pronoun: *any substitute for a Noun or Noun phrase (you, we, them)*

Adjective: *any qualifier of a Noun (big, small, brave, happy, my)*

Verb: *any action (walk), occurrence (happen), or state of being (be)*

Adverb: *any qualifier that specifies an Adjective, Verb, clause, sentence, or other Adverb (very, today, yesterday, next week)*

Preposition: *any establisher of relation and syntactic context (in, to)*

Conjunction: *any syntactic connector (and, but, if, although)*

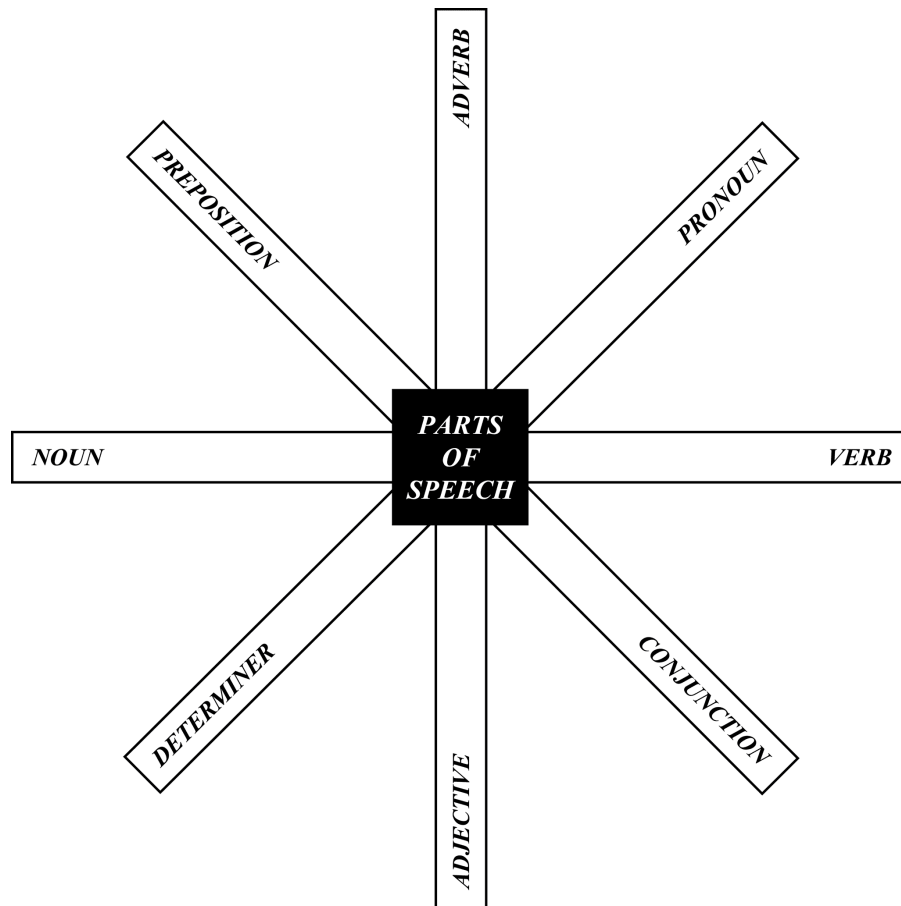
Linguists may recognise that the above list of eight word classes is drastically simplified and artificial. For example, "*Adverb*" is to some extent a catch-all class that includes words with many different functions. Although these eight are the traditional eight English parts of speech, modern linguists have been able to classify English words

into even more specific categories and subcategories based on function. **Interjections** and **Sound words** have special qualities. Sound words describe or imitate human or non-human sounds and can belong to different parts of speech such as Nouns, Verbs or others. This is why I treat them separately. Generally, I display words here not in a scientific manner but according to their practical use!

The four main parts of speech in English, namely *Nouns*, *Verbs*, *Adjectives* and *Adverbs*, are labelled form classes as well. Anyhow, neither written nor spoken English generally marks words as belonging to one part of speech or another, as they tend to be understood in the context of the sentence. Words like *neigh*, *break*, *outlaw*, *laser*, *microwave*, and *telephone* might all be either Verbs or Nouns. Although *-ly* is a frequent Adverb marker, not all Adverbs end in *-ly* (*-wise* is another common Adverb marker), and not all words ending in *-ly* are Adverbs. For instance, *tomorrow*, *fast*, *very* can all be Adverbs, while *early*, *friendly*, *ugly* are all Adjectives (though *early* can also function as an Adverb). Verbs can also be used as Adjectives (e.g. "*The astonished child watched the spectacle unfold*" instead of the Verb usage "*The unfolding spectacle astonished the child*"). In such cases, the Verb is in its *Present Participle* form. In certain circumstances, even words with grammatical functions can be used as Verbs or Nouns, as in, "We must look to the *hows* and not just the *whys*."

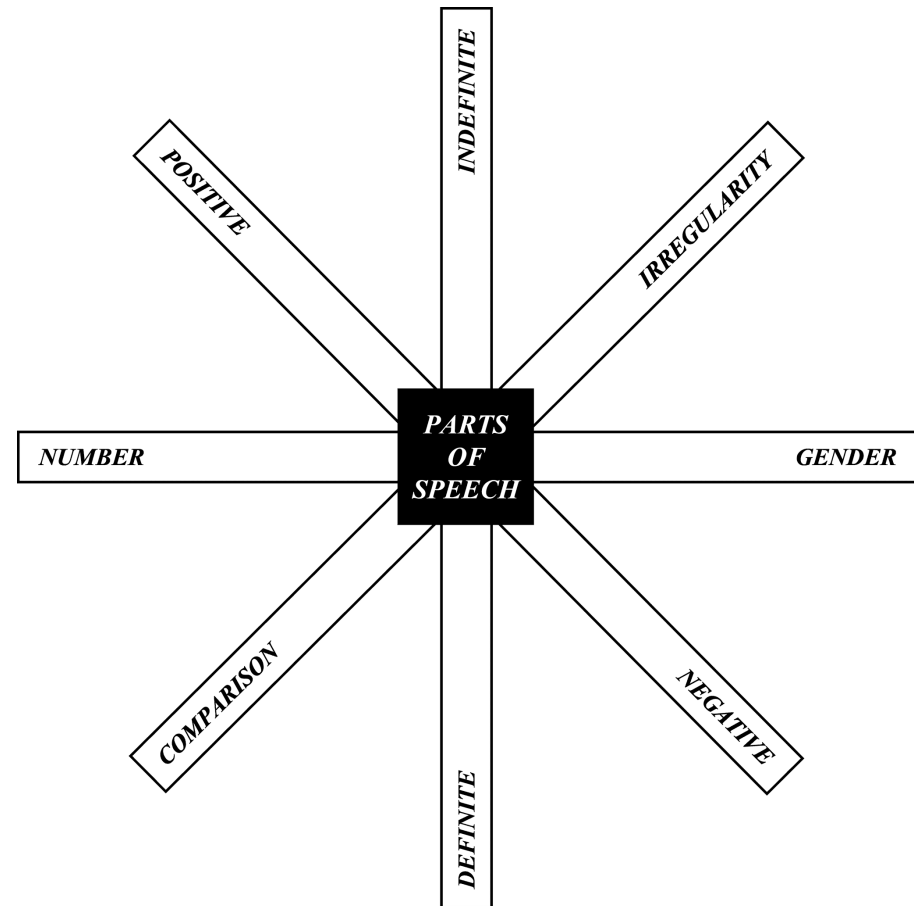
In my glossary, however, I use a functional classification: *General terms* (linguistics, grammar, pronunciation, plural etc.), *Grammar features* connected to *Nouns* (Pronouns and Adjectives), to *Verbs* (and Adverbs), and to *Sentences* (Conjunction, Subject, Object etc.)

The 8 Main Parts of Speech



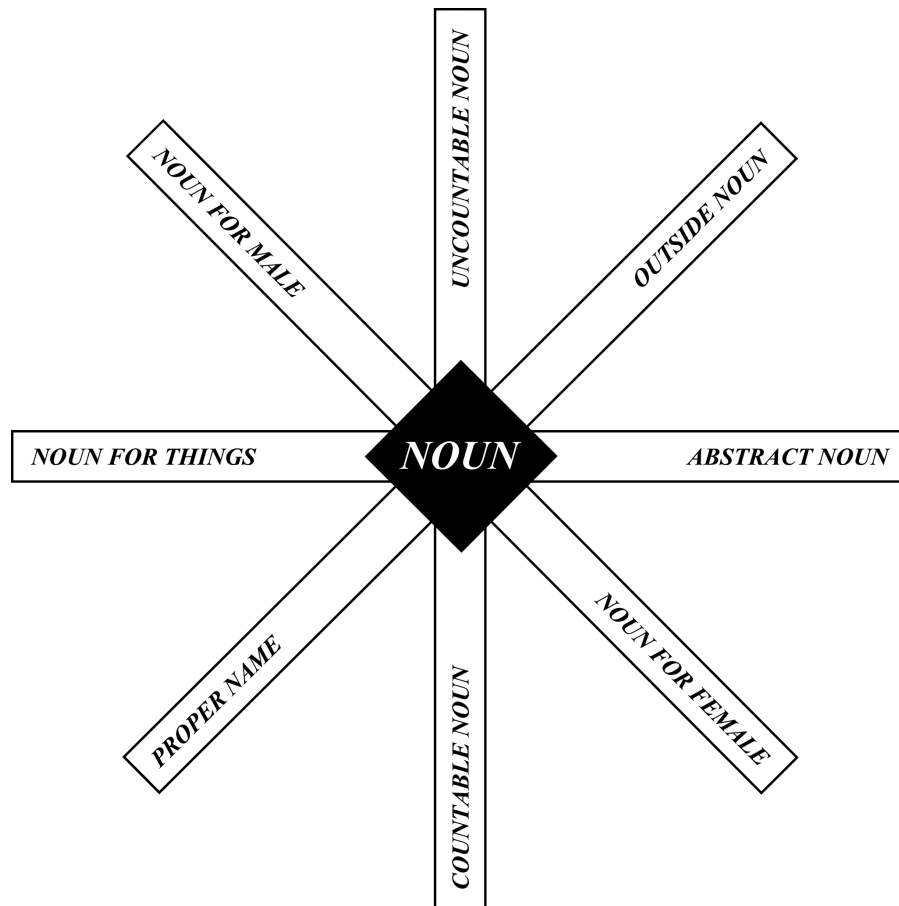
With over 90%, the **Noun** represents the largest word group in the English language. **Pronouns** can be used instead of a Noun (*you, we, them, this, that, what, why, who, whom, whose*). **Determiners, Articles, Measure words** or other **Qualifiers** can describe a Noun. **Adjectives** too can describe a Noun and can build **Adverbs**. Adverbs and Adjectives share the same **Comparatives** and **Superlatives**.

Properties of the Parts of Speech



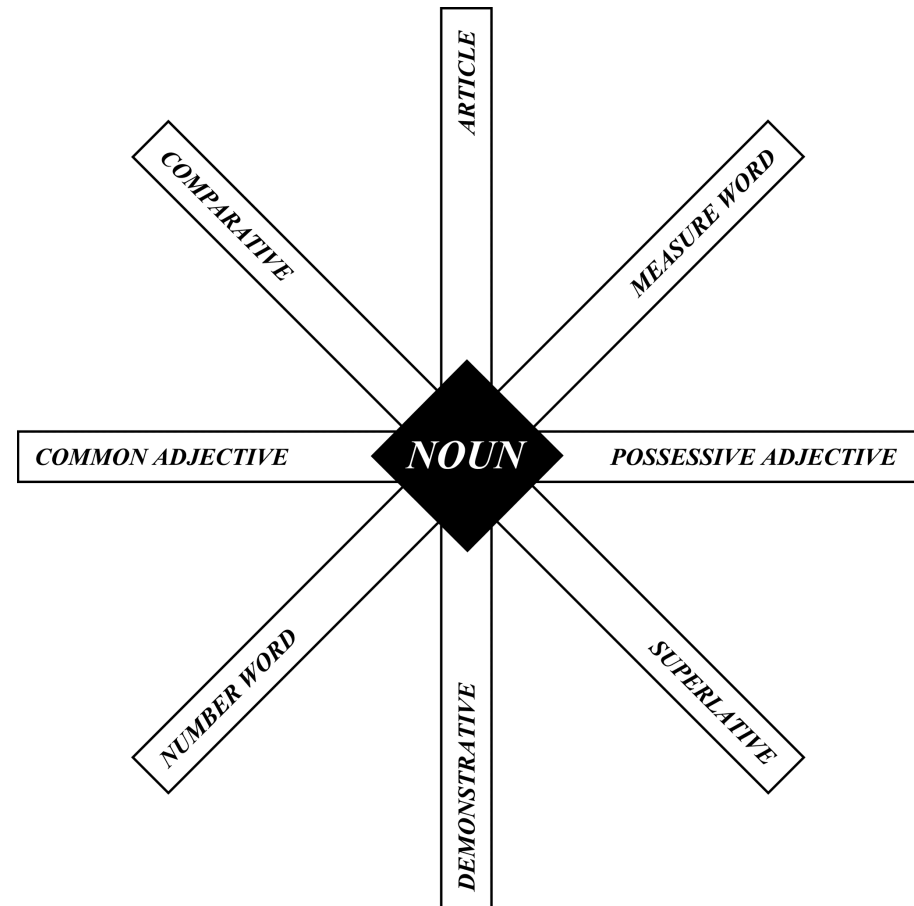
With **Number** we mean **Singular** or **Plural**. Many words can be **irregular**, such as **Plural Nouns** or **Verbs** in their **Past** form and their **Past Participle**. **Pronouns** and **Articles** can be **definite** or **indefinite**. The **negative** form of a **Noun** is shown by "no", while "not" stands for the **negative** of **Adjectives**. Nouns for humans and animals can have also a **female** form: *man - woman, Mr - Mrs*, etc.

The 8 Main Variations of the Noun



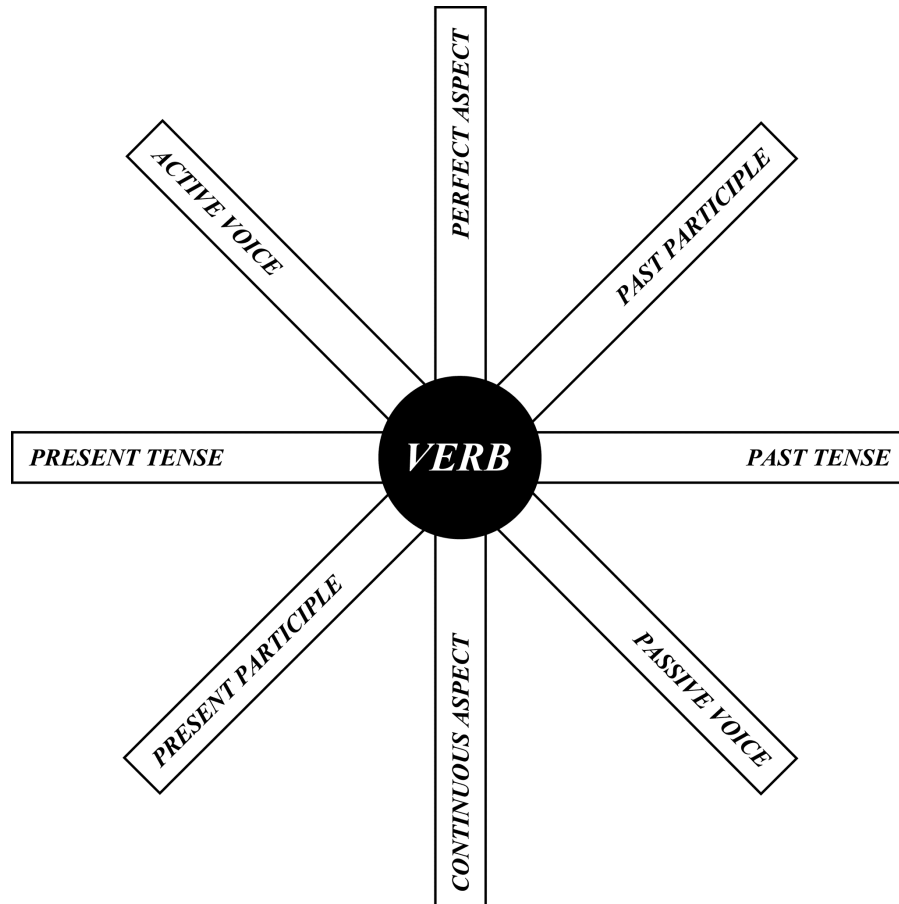
A **Noun** can express things in different ways. There are **Nouns for Things** or Objects and **Abstract Nouns** which name intellectual ideas or thoughts; **Names** are also Nouns. **Outside Nouns** are Nouns made from other kind of words, such as **from Verbs**: *the swim, swimming*, the *swimmer*; **from Adjectives**: *greatness*; and Nouns can distinguish male from female: *actor - actress, tiger - tigress*.

Important Describers of a Noun



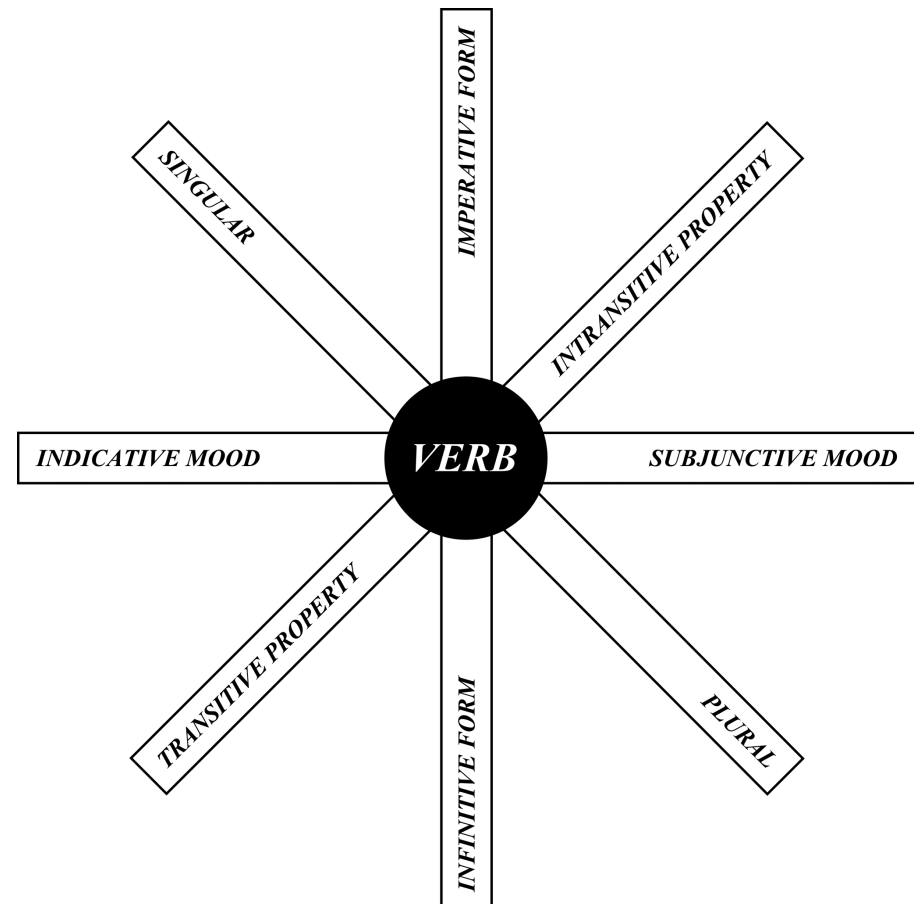
Directly before the Noun, we can place any **Describer** words such as the **Article**: *a, an, the* and *no*; **Demonstrative**: *this, these, that, those*; **Number**: *one, two, first, second, last*; **Possessive**: *my, your, our*; Any kind of common **Adjective**: *good, late, much, many*; **Comparative**: *better, more, less*; **Superlative**: *best, last, most, least*; **Measure words**: *a piece of, plenty of, a lot of*; **Quantifiers**: *any, some, not any*.

The 8 Main Verb Forms



The English **Verb** is based on "2". It means, it has always a pair: When there is a **Present tense**, there must be a **Past tense**. A Verb has a **Present Participle**, but also a **Past Participle**. Verbs can express **Active Voice**, but also also **Passive Voice**. When a Verb has a **Perfect Aspect**, it must have a **Continuous Aspect**.

Main Properties of the Verb



When there is an **Infinitive**, there is an **Imperative** form. We have **Auxiliary** Verbs, but **Modal** Verbs too. We have an **Indicative Mood**, but also a **Subjunctive Mood**. There are Verbs with **Transitive** Properties, as well as Verbs with **Intransitive** Properties. And when there is a **Singular** form, there must be a **Plural** form too.

GLOSSARY OF ESSENTIAL GRAMMAR TERMS

(专业词汇术语及语法必备)

You will be surprised to see this glossary at the beginning of our grammar chapter rather than at the end of it. The reason for this decision is a simple and logical one: We must learn some grammar words first, when we want to understand the English language.

Most grammar terms belong to the international vocabulary and therefore they are used – or at least well-known – in all western languages. Teachers and students are advised to use these English terms, because it is unlikely that any foreign teacher knows the grammar terms in your native language.

The most important grammar terms are printed with underlined letters. It might be a good idea to teach the meaning of them in the very first lesson, because the general concept of Chinese and English grammar can be pretty different. All names are given in English, Chinese and Pinyin, as well as in a plain English explanation.

1. General Terms Of Linguistics

(与词汇相关的语法) (Alphabetical order)

ACCENT (口音 **kǒuyīn**) is a manner of pronunciation peculiar to a particular individual, location, or nation. An accent may identify the location in which its speakers live (a regional or geographical accent), their ethnicity or social status (a social accent), or influence from their first language (a foreign accent).

AGREE (to) (保持性、数一致 **bǎochí xìng, shù yīzhì**) to change Word Endings or Forms according to whether you are referring to Masculine, Feminine, Neutral, Singular or Plural people or things.

AGREEMENT (性、数一致 **xìng, shù yīzhì**) changing Word Endings according to whether you are referring to Masculine, Feminine, Singular or Plural people or things.

ALPHABET (字母系统 **zìmǔ xìtǒng**) the English Alphabet came from the Roman Alphabet and has 26 letters: *Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Pp, Qq, Rr, Ss, Tt, Uu, Vv, Ww, Xx, Yy, Zz.*

APOSTROPHE ‘ (撇号/表示归属 **piēhào / biǎoshì guīshǔ**) a little sign (a denotation) used in so-called contractions, when two words become one, as in, *Danielle's dog, the doctor's wife, the book's cover, I'm happy, It's his turn, you're busy, we'd leave, I'll do that, and so on.*

CAPITAL LETTER or Upper Case (Letter) (大写字母 **dàxiě zìmǔ**) a Capital letter is the large letter of the Alphabet used at the begin of a Sentence, a name, title, and–occasionally–an emphasised word. See Lower Case.

CARDINAL NUMBER (基数词 **jīshù cí**) a Number used in counting, for example, *one, seven, ninety.* Compare with Ordinal Number.

CONSONANT (辅音 **fǔyīn**) a letter of the Alphabet which is not a Vowel: *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z.* The *y* is a Greek *i* and also used as a Vowel. Compare with Vowel.

CONTRACTION (缩写 **suōxiě**) to shorten or contract a Word or group of Words, often marked by an Apostrophe: *I've come* for *I have come*.

DIALECT (方言 **fāngyán**) a variety of a language that is a characteristic of a particular group of the language's speakers. The term is applied most often to regional speech patterns (Scottish English, Irish English, East-Coast American English, Mid-West American English), but a Dialect may also be the kind speech of a particular social class or a group of speakers that belong to a subculture.

EMPHASIS (强调 **qiángdiào**) a Form that makes the meaning stronger, for example, *I do go*, *I did go*; *I will go home!* > *I am going to go home!* *You must do the work!* > *You have to do the work!*.

ENDING or **Suffix** (后缀 **hòuzhù**) a Form added to a Verb, to Adjectives and Nouns depending on whether they refer to Masculine, Feminine, Neutral, Singular or Plural things.

EXCLAMATION (感叹词 **gǎntàncí**) a Word, Phrase or Sentence that you use to show you are surprised, shocked, angry and so on, for example, *Oh!*; *How dare you!*; *What a surprise!*

LOWER CASE (LETTER) (小写字母 **xiǎoxiě zìmǔ**) the *small letter* of the Alphabet. Most Words are written with *small letters* except names and titles. Compare with Capital Letter.

NEGATIVE (否定 **fǒudìng**) a Question or Statement which contains a Word such as *not*, *never* or *nothing*, and is used to say that something is not happening, is not true or is absent. Negative is the Opposite of Positive. Example: *I never eat meat*; *Do you not love me?* Compare with Neutral and Positive.

NEUTRAL (中性词 **zhōng xìngcí**) is neither Positive nor Negative, neither Male nor Female, neither Masculine nor Feminine. The Personal Pronoun *it* or *its* is considered to be Neutral. The number *0* (zero) is Neutral, because there always can be a Number which is greater than *0* (3, for example) but also one which smaller than *0* (0.5 or -5 or a half, for example)

NUMBER (数量 **shùliàng**) used to say how many things you are referring to or where something comes in a sequence. See also Cardinal Number and Ordinal Number.

OPPOSITE (反义词 **fǎnyìcí**) is a Word that describes the contrary meaning of a Word: the Opposite of *good* is *bad* or *not good*; The Opposite of *Positive* is *Negative*; The Opposite of *affirmative* is *negation*; the Opposite of *yes* is *no*, the Opposite of *first* is *last*.

ORDINAL NUMBER (序数词 **xù shùcí**) a Number used to indicate where something comes in an order or sequence, for example, *first*, *fifth*, *sixteenth*. Compare with Cardinal Number.

PART OF SPEECH (词性/词类 **cíxìng / cílèi**) a Word class, for example, Noun, Verb, Objective, Preposition, Pronoun.

PARTITIVE ARTICLE (部分冠词 **bùfēn guāncí**) the Words *some* or *any*, used to refer to part of a thing but not all of it, for example, *Have you got any money?*; *I am going to buy some bread*.

PLURAL (复数 **fùshù**) the Form of a Word which is used to refer to more than one person or thing. Compare with Singular: *book* > *books*, *apple* > *apples*, *foot* > *feet*, *man* > *men*, *child* > *children*, *goose* > *geese*; *is* > *are*, *was* > *were*, *this* > *these*, *that* > *those*.

POSITIVE (肯定 **kěndìng**) is the Opposite of Negative. Compare with Negative and Neutral.

PREFIX (前缀 **qiánzhuì**) is a part that could be put at the beginning of a Word: *unbelievable*, *incredible*.

PREPOSITION (介词 **jiècí**) is a Word such as *of*, *for*, *with*, *into* or *from*, which is in English usually followed by a Noun, Pronoun or a Word Ending in *-ing*. Prepositions show how people and things relate to the rest of the Sentence, for example, *She's at home*; *A tool for cutting grass*; *It is from David*.

SINGULAR (单数可数名词 **dānshù kěshù míngcí**) the Form of a Word which is used to refer to one person or thing. The Form which you find in a dictionary is always the Singular Form. Compare with Plural.

SLANG (俚语 **lǐyǔ**) is the use of informal Words and expressions that are not considered Standard in the speaker's language or Dialect, but are considered acceptable in certain social settings. Slang are Words that are informal and may act as synonyms or may be used as a means of identifying with one's peers.

STEM (sometimes called Root or Base) (词根 **cígēn**) the main part of a Word to which Endings are added.

SUFFIX (后缀 **hòuzhuì**) See Ending.

SYLLABLE (音节 **yīnjié**) Consonant+Vowel units that make up the sounds of a Word, for example, ca-the-dral (3 Syllables), im-po-ssi-ble (4 Syllables).

UPPER CASE (大写字母 **dàxiě zìmǔ**) See Capital Letter

VOWEL (元音 **yuányīn**) one of the letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*. The *y* can also be a Vowel. Compare with Consonant.

WORD (字 **zì**) the smallest independent unit of a Sentence, Clause or Phrase. A Word has always a meaning. A single Syllable can be even smaller but often conveys no meaning, because it is not independent. However a Syllable can be a word.

2 Grammar Features Connected To The Verb (与动词相关的语法) (Coherent order)

VERB (动词 **dòngcí**)

TENSE FORM (时态形式 **shítài xíngshì**)

BASE FORM or Infinitive (动词原形 **dòngcí yuánxíng**): drive

PRINCIPAL PARTS or Basic Forms (动词的主要部分 **dòngcí de zhǔyào bùfèn**): drive (drives), drove, driving, driven.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE (现在分词 **xiànzài fēncí**)

PAST PARTICIPLE (过去分词 **guòqù fēncí**)

HELPER VERB or Auxiliary Verb (助动词 **zhù dòngcí**)

MODAL VERB (情态动词 **qíngtài dòngcí**)

INFINITIVE (动词不定式 **dòngcí bù dìngshì**).

1. There are **4 Infinitives** in the **Active Voice**: **Simple**: (to) drive; **Simple Continuous**: (to) be driving; **Perfect**: (to) have driven; **Perfect Continuous**: (to) have been driving;
2. And there are **another 4 Infinitives** in the **Passive Voice**: **Simple**: (to) be driven; **Simple Continuous**: (to) be being driven; **Perfect**: (to) have been driven; **Perfect Continuous**: (to) have been being driven.
3. So, there are **8 Infinitives** in total, either with or without "to".

GERUND (动名词 **dòng míngcí**)

1. There are 2 Gerunds in the **Active Voice**: **Simple**: driving, **Perfect**: having driven;
2. And there are another 2 Gerunds in the **Passive Voice**: **Simple**: being driven; **Perfect**: having been driven.
3. So, there are **4 Gerunds** in total.

INDICATIVE MOOD or **Mode** (指示性情绪 **zhǐshì xìng qíngxù**)

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD or **Mode** (虚拟语气 **xūnǐ yǔqì**) (almost extinct 几乎灭绝了 **jīhū mièjuéle**) Present, all persons: "**be**"; Past, all persons: "**were**". All other forms are like Indicative forms but the 3rd Person Singular has no -s at the end.

TIME (时间 **shíjiān**, 时态 **shítài**) Every Verb in English has always 4 distinct times (made out of only 2 forms: Present form and Past form):

1. **Present** (indicates the Present time or Future time)
2. **Past** (indicates a time in the Past)
3. **Future** (indicates a time in the Future)
4. **Future in the Past** (for Assumption, Polite forms, Conditionals)

This applies to all the 4 distinct Aspects, and to the 2 Voices (Active, Passive) too!

TENSE or Verb tense (时态 **shítài**, 动词时态 **dòngcí shítài**) Each and every English Verb tense is **always a mix** of Aspect AND Time!

ASPECT (方面, 动词语法 **fāng miàn, dòngcí yǔfǎ**) There are 4 Aspects in English. An Aspect has NOTHING to do with time but clarifies a certain Point of View of the speaker!

1. **Simple** (is about frequent, habitual facts or permanent, physical states)
2. **Simple Continuous** (is an action that has not ended yet)
3. **Perfect** (begun in the past but effects the present time)
4. **Perfect Continuous** (action when something else happens)

VERB TENSE AGREEMENT * (动词紧张协议 **dòngcí jǐnzhāng xiéyì**)

It refers to the general rule that when we begin a sentence in Present, we must stay in the Present. This applies also for entire paragraphs. Easy guide: The Aspects Simple, Simple Continuous, Perfect, and Perfect Continuous can be mixed and also the Active with the Passive Voice. There are only **2 real tenses** in English: **Present and Past**. Use either all **Present forms** (in the following examples marked with 1*) together or all **Past forms** (in the following examples marked with 2*), regardless what Aspect they are in, and you cannot do wrong. **But watch out: A Past Participle is just a tool word, not a Past tense!**

ALL VERB TENSES (logical names) 所有动词时态 (逻辑名称) **suǒyǒu dòngcí shítài, (luójí míngchēng)**; The word "**tense**" always refers to a **mix of aspect and time**. Use the **Aspect name** first !

The Simple tenses (基础时态 jīchǔ shítài)

1 **Simple Present** tense (基础的现在时态 jīchǔ de xiànzài shítài):

"I drive" or "I do drive"

2 **Simple Past** tense (基础的过去时态 jīchǔ de guòqù shítài) :

"I drove" or "I did drive"

1 **Simple Future** tense (基础的将来时态 jīchǔ de jiānglái shítài):

"I will drive"

2 **Simple Future** tense in the **Past** (基础的将来过去时态 jīchǔ de jiānglái guòqù shítài) or *Simple Conditional tense* (基础的条件时态 jīchǔ de tiáojiàn shítài): "I would drive"

The Simple Continuous tenses (基础的进行时态 jīchǔ de jìnxíng shítài):

1* **Simple Continuous Present** tense (基础进行的现在时态 jīchǔ jìnxíng de xiànzài shítài): "I am driving"

2* **Simple Continuous Past** tense (基础进行的过去时态 jīchǔ jìnxíng de guòqù shítài): "I was driving"

1 **Simple Continuous Future** tense (基础进行的将来时态 jīchǔ jìnxíng de jiānglái shítài): "I will be driving"

2 **Simple Continuous Future** tense in the **Past** (基础进行的将来过去时态 jīchǔ jìnxíng de jiānglái guòqù shítài) or *Simple Continuous Conditional tense* (基础进行的条件时态 jīchǔ jìnxíng de tiáojiàn shítài): "I would be driving"

The Perfect tenses (完成时态 wánchéng shítài)

1 **Perfect Present** tense (完成的现在时态 wánchéng de xiànzài shítài): "I have driven"

2 **Perfect Past** tense (完成的过去时态 wánchéng de guòqù shítài): "I had driven"

1 **Perfect Future** tense (完成的将来时态 wánchéng de jiānglái shítài):

"I will have driven"

2 **Perfect Future** tense in the **Past** (完成的将来过去时态 wánchéng de jiānglái guòqù shítài) or *Perfect Conditional tense* (完成的条件时态 wánchéng de tiáojiàn shítài): "I would have driven"

The Perfect Continuous tenses (完美的进行时态 wánchéng de jìnxíng shítài).

1 **Perfect Continuous Present** tense (完成进行的现在时态 wánchéng jìnxíng de xiànzài shítài): "I have been driving"

2 **Perfect Continuous Past** tense (完成进行的过去时态 wánchéng jìnxíng de guòqù shítài): "I had been driving"

1 **Perfect Continuous Future** tense (完成进行的将来时态 wánchéng jìnxíng de jiānglái shítài): "I will have been driving"

2 **Perfect Continuous Future** tense in the **Past** (完成进行的将来过去时态 wánchéng jìnxíng de jiānglái guòqù shítài) or *Perfect Continuous Conditional tense* (完成进行的条件时态 wánchéng jìnxíng de tiáojiàn shítài): "I would have been driving"

ACTIVE VOICE (主动语态 zhǔdòng yǔtài) There are 16 tenses in the Active Voice.

PASSIVE VOICE (被动语态 bèidòng yǔtài) There are another 16 tenses in the **Passive Voice** as well but they are reserved for **Transitive Verbs only!**

TRANSITIVE VERB (及物动词 jíwù dòngcí) A Verb that requires one or more Objects. It can build all 32 Verb tenses.

INTRANSITIVE VERB (不及物动词 **bùjīwù dòngcí**) A Verb that does not require any direct object. It has only 16 tenses because it **cannot build** a tense in the **Passive Voice**! The **action is not done to someone or something**. It **only** involves the **Subject**!

PERSON (人称 **rénchēng**)

IMPERSONAL VERB (非人称动词/It 作主语 **fēi rénchēng dòngcí / "It" zuòzhǔyǔ**)

REFLEXIVE VERB (用于反身代词的动词 **yòng yú fǎn shēn dàicí de dòngcí**)

IMPERATIVE (祈使语气 **qíshǐ yǔqì**)

ADVERB (副词 **fùcí**)

REGULAR VERB (规则动词 **guīzé dòngcí**)

IRREGULAR VERB (不规则动词 **bùguīzé dòngcí**)

CONJUGATE (to) (使变位, 使搭配 **shǐ biànwèi, shǐ dā pèi**)

CONJUGATION (变位 **biànwèi**)

OLD NAMING

The use of old and inadequate grammar names (in English as well as in Chinese) causes students to be at war with English Verb tenses at

all times. Trouble is also caused by the incomplete knowledge of Verb tenses. Most students hardly know more than these Verb tenses:

PRESENT TENSE (一般现在时 **yībān xiànzài shítài**)

PAST TENSE (一般过去时态 **yībān guòqù shítài**)

FUTURE TENSE (将来时态 **jiānglái shítài**)

CONDITIONAL or **Future in the Past** (过去将来时态 **guòqù jiānglái shítài**).

Attention: The English term "Present Conditional" is fundamentally wrong as a Conditional is always built with the following Modal Verb PAST forms: should, would, could, might, ought (to) ! This is the reason why we better use the term "Future in the Past" or "Future Past" for short.

PRESENT CONTINUOUS (现在进行时态 **xiànzài jìnxíng shítài**)

PAST CONTINUOUS (简单的连续过去时 **jiǎndān de liánxù xiànzài shítài**)

PRESENT PERFECT (完美的现在时 **wánchéng xiànzài shítài**)

PAST PERFECT (过去完成时 **guòqù wánchéng shítài**)

3 Grammar Features Connected To The Noun

(与名词相关的语法) (Alphabetical order)

ABSTRACT NOUN (抽象名词 **chōuxiàng míngcí**) a Word used to refer to a quality, idea, feeling or experience, for example, *size, reason, belief, feeling, happiness, opinion*. See: Concrete Noun.

ADJECTIVE (形容词 **xíng róngcí**) a "Describing Word" that tells you more about a person or thing, such as their appearance, colour, size or other qualities. Example: *good, pretty, blue, big, bad*.

ARTICLE (冠词 **guāncí**) a Word like *the*, *a* and *an*, which is used in front of a Noun. See also Definite Article, Indefinite Article and Partitive Article.

COMPARATIVE (比较级 **bǐjiàoji**) an Adjective or Adverb with *-er* on the end of it or *more* or *less* in front of it that is used to compare people, things or actions. Example: *slower*, *less important*, *more carefully*.

COMPOUND NOUN (复合名词 **fùhé míngcí**) a Word for a living being, thing or idea, which is made up of two or more Words, for example, *tin-opener*, *railway station*, *newspaper*.

CONCRETE NOUN (具体名词 **jùtǐ míngcí**) a Word that refers to an Object you can touch with your hand, rather than to a quality or idea. Example: *ball*, *map*, *apples*. Compare with Abstract Noun.

COUNTABLE NOUN (可数名词 **kěshǔ míngcí**) a thing that you can count, such as *apple*, *pen*, *tree*. Example: *one apple*, *three pens*, *ten trees*. See Uncountable Noun.

DEFINITE ARTICLE (定冠词 **dìng guāncí**) the Word *the*. Negative: *no*. Compare with Indefinite Article.

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVE (指示形容词 **zhǐshì xíng róngcí**) one of the Words *this*, *that*, *these* and *those* used with a Noun to point out a particular person or thing. Example: *this woman*, *these women*, *that dog*, *those dogs*.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN (指示代词 **zhǐshì dàicí**) one of the Words *this*, *that*, *these* and *those* used instead of a Noun to point out

people or things, for example, *that looks fun*.

DETERMINER (限定词 **xiàndìngcí**) a word or phrase that occurs together with a Noun. It may indicate whether the Noun is *definite* or *indefinite*, closer or more distant. Common kinds of Determiners include *definite* and *indefinite Articles* (like *the*, *a*, *an*), Demonstratives (*this*, *that*), Possessive Determiners (*my*, *their*, Mike's), and Quantifiers (*many*, *few*, *several*).

EMPHATIC PRONOUN (代词强调 **dàicí qiángdiào**) a Word used instead of a Noun when you want to emphasise something, for example, *Is this for me?*; *Who broke the window?* - *He did*. Also called Stressed Pronoun.

NOUN (名词 **míngcí**) a "Naming Word" for a living being, thing or idea, for example, *woman*, *desk*, *happiness*, *Andrew*.

FEMININE (阴性词 **yīn xìngcí**) a Form of Noun, Pronoun or Adjective that is used to refer to a living being, thing or idea that is not classed as Masculine or Neutral. Example: *she*, *her*, *hers*; *queen*, *actress*.

GENDER (性/别 **xìng / biè**) whether a Noun, Adjective or Pronoun is Masculine, Feminine or Neutral (he, she, it). In most languages, Words belong to one of those Word groups, according to their Form. In English, Adjectives and Nouns lost their genders. Now they are Neutral with some exceptions: ships are Feminine and most countries as well: *In 1912 the Titanic struck an iceberg, she sunk in less than three hours*.

GERUND (动名词 **dòng míngcí**) is a Verb Form used as a Noun. The English Gerund is formed by adding *-ing* to a Verb Root. Its Form is

identical to the Present Participle. It can behave as a Verb within a Clause (so that it may be modified by an Adverb or has an Object), but the Clause as a whole (sometimes consisting of only one Word, the Gerund itself) acts as a Noun within the larger Sentence. For example: *Playing is the action of "to play"*. It should not be confused with other Nouns ending in *-ing*, such as *building*, *painting*, *writing*, which name a *product* resulting from an action.

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVE (修饰不定代词的词 **xiūshì bùdìng dài cí de cí**) one of a small group of Adjectives used to talk about people or things in a general way, without saying who or what they are, for example, *several*, *all*, *none*, *every*.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE (不定冠词 **bùdìng guāncí**) the Words *a* and *an*. Negative: *no*. Compare with Definite Article.

INDEFINITE PRONOUN (不定代词 **bùdìng dài cí**) a small group of Pronouns such as *everything*, *nobody* and *something*, which are used to refer to people or things in a general way, without saying exactly *who* or *what* they are.

INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVE (疑问代词 / 不能单独使用 **yíwèn dài cí / bùnéng dāndú shǐyòng**) a Question Word used with a Noun to ask *who?*, *what?* or *which?* Example: *What instruments do you play?*; *Which shoes do you like?*

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN (疑问代词 **yíwèn dài cí**) one of the Words *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *what*, *how* and *which* when they are used to ask Questions. Example: *What is happening?*; *Who's coming?*

MASCULINE (阳性词 **yáng xìngcí**) a Form of Noun, Pronoun or

Adjective that is used to refer to a living being, thing or idea that is not classed as *Feminine* or *Neutral*.

OBJECT PRONOUN (代词做宾语 **dài cí zuò bīnyǔ**) one set of Pronouns including *me*, *him* and *them*, which are used instead of the Noun as the Object of a Verb or Preposition. Compare with Subject Pronoun.

PERSONAL PRONOUN (人称代词 **rénchēng dài cí**) one of the group of Words including *I* and *we*, which are used to refer to yourself, the people you are talking to *thou* and *you*, or *he*, *she*, *it* and *they* for the people or things you are talking about.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE (所有格代词 / 不能单独使用 **suǒyǒu gé dài cí / bùnéng dāndú shǐyòng**) one of the Words *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your* or *their*, used with a Noun to show that one person or thing belongs to another. See: Possessive Pronoun.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUN (所有格代词 **suǒyǒu gé dài cí**) one of the Words *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *his*, *ours*, *yours* or *theirs*, used instead of a Noun to show that one person or thing belongs to another.

PRONOUN (代词 **dài cí**) a Word which you use instead of a Noun, when you do not need or want to name someone or something directly, for example, *he*, *you*, *this*.

PROPER NOUN (专有名词 **zhuānyǒu míngcí**) the Name of a person, place, organisation or thing. Proper Nouns are always written with a Capital Letter, for example, *Apollo 11*, *Big Ben*, *Europe*, *Kevin*, *Glasgow*.

QUESTION WORD (疑问词 **yíwèncí**) a Word such as *why*, *where*, *who*, *which* or *how* which is used to ask a question. See Interrogative Adjective and Interrogative Pronoun.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUN (反身代词 **fǎnshēn dàicí**) a Word ending in *-self* or *-selves*, such as *myself* or *themselves*, which refers back to the Subject, for example, *He hurt himself*; *Take care of yourself*.

RELATIVE PRONOUN (关系代词 **guānxì dàicí**) a Word such as *that*, *who* or *which*, when it is used to link two parts of a Sentence together.

STRESSED PRONOUN (强调代词 **qiángdiào dàicí**) used instead of a Noun when we want to emphasise something, for example, *Is this for me?*; *Who broke the window? - He did*. Also called Emphatic Pronoun.

SUBJECT PRONOUN (人称代词作主语 **rénchēng dàicí zuòzhǔ yǔ**) a Word such as *I*, *he*, *she* and *they* which carries out the action described by the Verb. Pronouns stand in for Nouns when it is clear who is being talked about, for example, *My brother isn't here at the moment*. *He'll be back in an hour*. Compare with Object Pronoun.

SUPERLATIVE (最高级 **zuì gāojí**) an Adjective or Adverb with *-est* on the end of it or *most* or *least* before it. It is used to compare people, things or actions: Example, *thinnest*, *most quickly*, *least interesting*.

UNCOUNTABLE NOUN (also called **Mass Noun** or **Non-count**) (不可数名词 **bùkě shù míngcí**) a thing that you cannot count, such as substances or concepts. Example: *water*, *furniture*, *music*; See Countable Nouns.

4. Grammar Features Connected To The Sentence (与句子相关的语法) (Alphabetical order)

CASE (格/语法 **gé / yǔfǎ**) Form of a Pronoun based on its relationship to other Words in the Sentence; a Case can be *Subjective* (Nominative) "*I love this dog*", *Possessive* (Genitive) "*This is my dog*", or *Objective* "*This dog loves me*".

CLAUSE (从句 **cóngjù**) a group of words containing a Verb, a Sentence, the second or third Sentence when we put several Sentences together to a group. *Subordinate Clauses* are dependent Clauses to independent Clauses. They make a statement more precise. Some of the common Subordinate Conjunctions are *after*, *although*, *as*, *as if*, *because*, *before*, *if*, *since*, *so that*, *than*, *unless*, *until*, *when*, *where*, and *while*. Example: *My sister went home, because she was tired*. There is another type of Clause in the English language which causes confusion among students, because it has different names but mean the same thing: *Adjective Clause* or *Relative Clause*. It is a dependent Clause which follows a Sentence and is used to reflect back to a Noun or a Pronoun. It will begin with a Relative Pronoun (*who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, and *that*) or a Subordinate Conjunction (*when* and *where*). Those are the only words that can be used to introduce an Adjective Clause. The introductory word will always rename the word that it follows and modifies except when used with a Preposition, which will come between the introductory word and the word it renames. Example: *There is the man whose dog run away last week*. *Last year I visited the place where I grew up*.

CONJUNCTION or **Link Word** (连词 **liáncí**) a Word such as *and*,

because, or *but* that links two Words or Phrases of a similar type or two parts of a Sentence, for example, *Diane and I have been friends for years. I left because I was bored.*

DIRECT OBJECT (直接宾语 **zhíjiē bīnyǔ**) a Noun referring to the person or thing affected by the action described by a Verb, for example, *She wrote her name; I shut the window.* Compare with Indirect Object.

DIRECT OBJECT PRONOUN (代词做直接宾语 **dàicí zuò zhíjiē bīnyǔ**) a Word such as *me*, *him*, *us* and *them* which is used instead of a Noun to stand in for the person or thing most directly affected by the action described by the Verb. Compare with Indirect Object Pronoun.

INDIRECT OBJECT (间接宾语 **jiànjiē bīnyǔ**) a Noun used with Verbs that take two Objects. Example: *I gave the carrot to the rabbit, the rabbit* is the Indirect Object and *the carrot* is the Direct Object. Compare with Direct Object.

INDIRECT OBJECT PRONOUN (间接宾语做代词 **jiànjiē bīnyǔ zuò dàicí**) when a Verb has two Objects (a direct one and an indirect one), the Indirect Object Pronoun is used instead of a Noun to show the person or the thing the action is intended to benefit or harm, for example: *He gave me a book; Can you get me a towel?* Compare with Direct Object Pronoun.

INDIRECT QUESTION (间接疑问句 **jiàn jiē yíwènjù**) used to tell someone else about a Question and introduced by a Verb such as *ask*, *tell* or *wonder*. Example: *He asked me what the time was; I wonder who he is.*

OBJECT (宾语 **bīnyǔ**) a Noun or Pronoun which refers to a person or thing that is affected by the action described by the Verb. Compare with Direct Object, Indirect Object and Subject.

PHRASE (词组 **cízǔ**) a small group of Words that adds meaning to a Word. A Phrase is not a Sentence because it is not a complete idea with a Subject and a Verb.

QUESTION TAG (反义疑问句 **fǎnyì yíwènjù**) special Form of a mini-question at the end of a statement; usually used to obtain confirmation: *The Earth is round, isn't it?*, *You don't eat meat, do you?* The whole Sentence is a *Tag Question*; the mini-question is a *Question Tag*. Simple forms: *It is late, eh?*, *It is late, right?*

SENTENCE (句子 **jùzi**) a group of Words which usually has a Verb and a Subject. In writing, a Sentence has a Capital Letter at the beginning and a full stop (.), question mark (?) or exclamation mark (!) at the end. See Cause.

SUBJECT (主语 **zhǔyǔ**) the Noun in a Sentence or Phrase that refers to the person or thing that does the action described by the Verb or is in the state described by the Verb, for example, *My cat doesn't drink milk.* Compare with Object.

SVO or **SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT** (主语-动词-宾语 **zhǔyǔ-dòngcí-bīnyǔ**) a common English Word Order where the *Subject* is followed by the *Verb* and then the *Object*. Example: *The man crossed the street.*

TAG QUESTION (反义疑问 **fǎnyì yíwèn**) See Question Tag.

ENGLISH PRONOUN CLASSIFICATION

An Overview

In linguistics and grammar, a *Pronoun* is a word that *substitutes* for a noun or noun phrase. The *Possessive Pronoun* can be used as an *Adjective* as for instance in "my book". Pronouns can be divided into several categories according to the tasks they have to perform: Personal Pronouns, Possessive Pronouns, Reflexive Pronouns, Reciprocal Pronouns, Interrogative Pronouns, Demonstrative Pronouns, Indefinite Pronouns and Relative Pronouns. The fact that some of those pronouns have an *identical form* (that, who, which etc.) causes the first trouble for learners.

Personal Pronouns

Personal Pronouns may be classified by *person*, *number* and *case*. In the English language, there are *three persons*: first, second and third person, each of which can be divided into two forms by number: Singular and Plural. In the third person we also distinguish three genders: Male, Female and Neuter.

English has two Pronoun cases, *Subject* and *Object*. Subject Pronouns are used when the person or thing is the Subject of the sentence or clause (*I* like to eat chips, but *she* does not.). Object Pronouns are used attributively when the person or thing is the Object of the sentence or clause (John likes *me* but not *her*). The Subject Pronoun and the Object Pronoun have distinguished forms in English.

Possessive Pronouns

Possessive Pronouns are used to indicate possession or ownership. *Possessive Pronouns* they replace a *Noun*: mine, yours, hers, ours, yours, theirs. An example is: Those clothes are *mine*. *Possessive Adjectives* describe a Noun: *my, your, her, our, your, their*, as in, *I lost my wallet*. (Depending on the context, *his* and *its* can fall in either category.) Because the latter have a syntactic role close to that of Adjectives, always qualifying a Noun, we can classify them as Adjectives. They replace possessive Noun phrases. As an example, "*Their crusade* to capture our attention" could replace "*The advertisers' crusade* to capture our attention".

Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive Pronouns are used when a person or thing acts on itself, for example, John cut *himself*. In English they all end in -self or -selves and must refer to a noun phrase elsewhere in the same clause.

Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal Pronouns are a type of Anaphor which can be used to refer to a Noun phrase mentioned earlier in a sentence. The reciprocal Pronouns known in English are "*one another*" and "*each other*" Reciprocal Pronouns refer to a reciprocal relationship (each other, one another). They must refer to a Noun phrase in the same clause. An example in English is: They do not like *each other*.

Interrogative Pronouns Or Question Words

Interrogative Pronouns ask which person or thing is meant. In reference to a person, one may use *who* (subject), *whom* (object) or *whose* (possessive); for example, *Who* did that? In colloquial speech, *whom* is generally replaced by *who*. Non-personal Pronouns (which and what) have only one form. We simply call them **Question Words**.

Demonstrative Pronouns

The **Demonstrative Pronouns** in English are *this*, *that* and their plurals *these*, *those*, and the archaic *yon* and *yonder*, along with *this one* or *that one* as substitutes for the Pronoun use of *this* or *that*.

Demonstrative Pronouns often distinguish their targets by pointing or some other indication of position; for example, I shall take *these*, I shall take *those*. In other words: *this* and *these* are connected to the position "*here*", *that* and *those* to the position "*there*".

Indefinite Pronouns

An **Indefinite Pronoun** is a Pronoun that refers to one or more unspecified beings, Objects, or places. The most common ones:

somebody	someone	something
anybody	anyone	anything
nobody	no one	nothing
everybody	everyone	everything

Another group, including *many*, *more*, *both*, and *most*, can appear alone or followed by *of*.

In addition, **Distributive Pronouns** are used to refer to members of a group separately rather than collectively. (To each his own.) Negative Pronouns indicate the non-existence of people or things. (Nobody thinks that.)

Relative Pronouns

Relative Pronouns (*who*, *whom*, *whose*, *what*, *which* and *that*) refer back to people or things previously mentioned: People *who* smoke should quit now. They are used in *relative clauses*. Indefinite Relative Pronouns have some of the properties of both Relative Pronouns and Indefinite Pronouns. They have a sense of "referring back", but the person or thing to which they refer has not previously been explicitly named: I know what I like.

Some Pronouns In Detail

I am going to show you now all important Pronouns in detail and describe how they work

Since they are so closely related to each other, I have put the Personal Pronouns (for Subject and Object), Possessive Adjectives, Possessive Pronouns, Reflexive Pronouns together in one table divided into Singular, Polite and Plural forms

The Personal Pronoun In Detail 人称代词

The English Personal Pronoun has the greatest variety of all English words. According to Person, Number, Gender or Case, it can change into different forms. This process is called “Declination”.

Singular Forms

Subject Pronoun	Object Pronoun	Possessive Adjectives	Possessive Pronoun	Reflexive Pronoun
对于主题 (主语)	对于对象 (宾语)	所有格形容词 (所有格)	物主代词 (表语)	反身代词
I	me	my	mine	myself
我	我	我的	我的	我自己
wǒ	wǒ	wǒde	wǒde	wǒ zìjǐ
you, thou*	you, thee*	your, thy*	yours, thine*	yourself, thyself*
你	你	你的	你的	你自己
nǐ	nǐ	nǐde	nǐde	nǐ zìjǐ
he	him	his	his	himself
他	他	他的	他的	他自己
tā	tā	tāde	tāde	tā zìjǐ
she	her	her	hers	herself
她	她	她的	她的	她自己
tā	tā	tāde	tāde	tā zìjǐ
it	it	its	its	itself
它	它	它的	它的	它自己
tā	tā	tāde	tāde	tā zìjǐ

Polite Form For The 2nd Person Singular And Plural

you	you	your	yours	yourselves
您	您	您的	您的	您自己
nín	nín	nínde	nínde	nín zìjǐ

The Plural Forms

we	us	our	ours	ourselves
我们	我们	我们的	我们的	我们自己
wǒmen	wǒmen	wǒmende	wǒmende	wǒmen zìjǐ
you	you	your	yours	yourselves
你们	你们	你们的	你们的	你们自己
nǐmen	nǐmen	nǐmende	nǐmende	nǐmen zìjǐ
they	them	their	theirs	themselves
他们	他们	他们的	他们的	他们自己
tāmen	tāmen	tāmende	tāmende	tāmen zìjǐ

*These forms have restrictions in usage, because they have become obsolete, might be part of a dialect or they might be used in particular occasions only, such as in church, family, dialects, poetry and lyrics. A Verb that follows "thou" ends in (e)st: sayest, hast (have), beest or art (be). Verbs of the 3rd Person end in (e)th in older texts or poetry.

Attention: The 3rd Person Plural can refer to any single person whose gender should not be mentioned in a speech. Example: *Everyone returned to **their** seat* or *One student failed **their** exam*. Sometimes we use the words “one” or “oneself” (or we, you) as a General Personal Pronoun: ***One** can ask **oneself** if that action was useful*.

The Question Word In Detail

An Interrogative Pronoun or Question Word is a function word used to ask a question, such as **what, when, where, who, whom, whose, why, whether** and **how**. They are sometimes called **wh-words**, because in English most of them start with wh-.

They may be used in both direct questions (*Where* is he going?) and in indirect questions (I wonder *where* he is going). In English and various other languages the same forms are also used as Relative Pronouns in certain *relative clauses* (The country *where* he was born) and certain *adverb clauses* (I go *where* he goes). By using these question words you can ask for the most basic information:

Question Word	Function
what?	determiner
which?	difference
who ?	person (Subject) = Nominative case
whose?	possessive = Genitive case
whom?	person (Object) = Object or Oblique case
where?	location
when?	time
why?, wherefore?	reason
how?	manner
whether?	choice between alternatives
whence?*, where from?	source, origin
whither?*, where to?	goal

Question Words can build combinations with Prepositions. Those combinations are ideal to obtain precise answers in greater detail:

Combination	Function
for what?**	purpose
what for?**	purpose
with what?	connexion (thing)
from what?**	product origin
out of what?**	source, origin
of what?	product origin, source
by what?	origin of action
through what?	origin of action
to whom?	direction, person
of whom?	origin, genitive paraphrase, person
with whom?	connexion, person
by whom?	origin of action, person
for whom?	benefit, person
how long?	length of time or thing
how often?	repetition
how much?	quantity, uncountable
how many?	quantity, countable

** The Preposition of such a combination can be put at the end of a sentence: *Where is it from? What is it from? What is it for? etc.*

The forms “whence” and “whither” are considered old-fashioned.

Attention: Question words are used at the beginning of a sentence in English when we use it for a direct question!

Forms With -EVER

Most English Interrogative Pronouns can take the Suffix -ever, to form words such as *whatever* and *wherever*. (An older form of the Suffix is -soever, as in *whomsoever*.) These words have the following main meanings:

It can function as Indefinite Pronoun. In such a case it sometimes called "Distributive Pronoun". Each according to their needs!"

As more emphatic interrogative words, often expressing disbelief or puzzlement in mainly rhetorical questions: *Whoever could have done such a thing?* *Wherever has he gone?*

To form free relative clauses, as in *I shall do whatever you do; Whoever challenges us will be punished; Go wherever they go*. In this use, the nominal -ever words (who(m)ever, whatever, whichever) can be regarded as *Indefinite Pronouns* or as *Relative Pronouns*.

To form adverbial clauses with the meaning "no matter where/who/etc.": *Wherever they hide, I shall find them*.

Some of these words have also developed independent meanings, such as *however* as an Adverb meaning "*nonetheless*"; *whatever* and *whatsoever* as emphatic adverbs used with *no*, *none*, *any*, *nothing*, etc.; and *whatever* in its slang usage.

The Relative Pronoun In Detail

A Relative Pronoun marks a *relative clause*; it has the same referent in the main clause of a sentence that the *relative clause* modifies. With the exception of "that", most Relative Pronouns are identical to *question words*. These ones are most common in use:

Subject	Object	Possessive
who	who(m)	whose
which	which	whose
that	that	

These *question words* are also in use as Relative Pronoun: *where*, *when*, *why*, *what*, *how*.

An example is the English word *that* in the sentence "*This is the house that Jack built*", Here the Relative Pronoun that marks the *relative clause* "*that Jack built*", which modifies the noun house in the main sentence. *That* refers to house in the main clause and links two imagined sentences "*This is a house*" and "*Jack built the house*", where house is the same in both sentences. Not all instances of the word that are Relative Pronouns.

In providing a link between a *subordinate clause* and a *main clause*, a Relative Pronoun is similar in function to a *subordinating Conjunction*. Unlike a Conjunction, however, a Relative Pronoun does not simply mark the *subordinate (relative) clause*, but also plays the role of a noun within that clause. For example, in the *relative clause* "that Jack

built” given above, the pronoun “that” functions as the object of the verb “built”. Compare this with “Jack built the house after he married”, where the conjunction after marks the *subordinate clause* after he married, but does not play the role of any Noun within that clause.

Indefinite Pronoun In Detail

An Indefinite Pronoun is a naming word (just as a Personal or Demonstrative pronoun) that refers to one or more unspecified beings, objects, or places. Indefinite Pronouns, the largest group of pronouns, refer to one or more unspecified persons or things. Distributive Pronouns are used to refer to members of a group separately rather than collectively. (To each his own.). Negative Pronouns indicate the non-existence of people or things. (Nobody thinks that.)

Note that many of these words can function as other parts of speech too, depending on context. For example, in many disagree with his views the word “many” functions as an Indefinite Pronoun, while in many people disagree with his views it functions as a quantifier (a type of determiner) that qualifies the noun “people”. Example sentences in which the word functions as an indefinite pronoun are given.

Most Indefinite Pronouns are either singular or plural. However, some of them can be singular in one context and plural in another. The most common Indefinite Pronouns are listed below, with examples, as singular, plural or singular/plural. Notice that a singular pronoun takes

a Singular verb AND that any Personal Pronoun should also agree (in number and gender). Look at these examples: Each of the players has a doctor. I met two girls. One has given me her phone number. Similarly, Plural Pronouns need Plural agreement: Many have expressed their views.

***Table Of Indefinite Pronouns
With Examples Of Usage***

Negative Expression	Universal Expression	Positive Expression	Elective Expression	General Expression
<i>Person</i>				
no one, (no-one), nobody : <i>No one / Nobody thinks that you are mean</i>	everyone, everybody : <i>Everyone / Everybody had a cup of coffee.</i>	someone, somebody: <i>Someone / Somebody should mend it.</i>	anyone, anybody : <i>Anyone / Anybody can see this.</i>	one : <i>One might see it that way.</i> See also Personal Pronouns: oneself, we, you.
<i>Thing</i>				
nothing : <i>Nothing is true.</i>	everything: <i>Everything is permitted</i>	something : <i>Something makes me want to dance.</i>	anything : <i>Anything can happen if you just believe.</i>	

Dual				
neither : <i>In the end, neither was selected.</i>	both : <i>Both are guilty.</i>		either : <i>Either will do.</i>	
Plural				
				others : <i>Others can worry about that.</i>
Singular and Plural				
none : <i>None of those people is related to me.</i>	all : <i>All is lost.</i>	some : <i>Some of the biscuits have been eaten.</i>	any : <i>Any will do.</i>	such : <i>Such is life</i>
Singular				
	Universal distributive: each : <i>From each according to his ability, to each according to his need.</i>			

*More Pronouns Others Singular
another – <i>Thanks, I'll have another.</i> other – <i>One was singing while the other played the piano.</i> whatever – <i>Take whatever you like.</i> whichever – <i>Choose whichever is better.</i> whoever (archaic: whosoever) – <i>Whoever did this?</i> whomever (archaic: whomsoever) – <i>Give this to whomever you wish.</i>

*The elective existential pronouns are often used with negatives (I cannot see anyone), and in questions (Is anyone coming?).

English has the following **Quantifier Pronouns**:

Uncountable (thus, with a singular verb form)

enough	Enough is enough.
little	Little is known about this period of history.
less	Less is known about this period of history.
much	Much was discussed at the meeting.
more	More is better. (Also countable plural)
most	Most was rotten. (Usually specified, such as in most of the food.) (Also countable plural)
plenty	Thanks, that's plenty .

Countable, singular

one	One has got through. (Often modified or specified, such as in a single one, one of them etc.)
-----	---

Countable, plural

several	Several were chosen.
few	Few were chosen.
fewer	Fewer are going to church these days.
many	Many were chosen.
more	More were ignored. (Often specified, such as in more of us.) (Also uncountable)
most	Most would agree. (Also uncountable)

Some people say that “**none**” should always take a *Singular* Verb, even when talking about *countable Nouns* (e.g. five friends). They argue that “**none**” means “**no one**”, and “**one**” is obviously Singular. They say that “I invited five friends but **none** has come” is correct and “I invited five friends but **none** have come” is incorrect. Historically and grammatically there is little to support this view. “None” has been used for hundreds of years with both a Singular and a Plural Verb, according to the context and the emphasis required. So both are correct!

Possessive Forms

Some of the English Indefinite Pronouns above have Possessive forms. These are made as for Nouns, by adding ‘**s**, or just an apostrophe following a plural **-s**’.

The most commonly encountered Possessive forms of the above pronouns are:

one’s, as in “One should mind **one’s** own business”.

Those Pronouns derived from the Singular Indefinite Pronouns ending in **-one** or **-body**: **nobody’s**, **someone’s**, etc. (Those Pronouns ending **-thing** can also form Possessives, such as **nothing’s**, but these are less common.)

whoever’s, as in “We used whoever’s phone that is.”

those Pronouns derived from **other** and its variants: the **other’s**, **another’s**, and the Plural **others**: “We should not take **others’** possessions”.

either’s, **neither’s**

Note that most of these forms are identical to a form representing the Pronoun plus **-’s** as a Contraction of **is** or **has**. Hence **someone’s** may also mean someone **is** or someone **has**, as well as serving as a Possessive.

Compound Indefinite Pronouns

Two Indefinite Pronouns can sometimes be used in combination together. **Examples:** We should respect **each other**. People should love **one another**. And they can also be made possessive by adding an apostrophe and s. **Examples:** We should respect each **other’s** beliefs. We were checking each **other’s** work.

THE ENGLISH PREPOSITION – AN ETERNAL ENIGMA

The word *Preposition* comes from Latin, the Roman language, in which it was usually placed before an Object or complement, thus it was “before-placed”. In some other languages (like Turkish or Japanese), the words with this grammatical function come after, not before, the complement. Such words are then commonly called *postpositions* and work like *suffixes*. English however, the Preposition can stand before a complement or it follows other words. It describes the relationship between other words in a sentence. It often describes a direction or location, therefore I call it “*Direction Word*”.

In itself, a word like “*in*” or “*after*” is rather meaningless and hard to define in mere words. For instance, when you do try to define a Preposition like “*in*” or “*between*” or “*on*”, you invariably use your hands to show how something is situated in relationship to something else. Prepositions are nearly always combined with other words in structures called *prepositional phrases*. Prepositional phrases can be made up of a million different words, but they tend to be built the same: a preposition followed by a determiner and an Adjective or two, followed by a Pronoun or Noun (called the *Object of the Preposition*). This whole phrase, in turn, takes on a modifying role, acting as an Adjective or an Adverb, locating something in time and space, modifying a Noun, or telling when or where or under what conditions something happened.

The following amusing text tells us about a professor’s desk and all the prepositional phrases we can use while talking about it:

“You can sit *before* the desk (or *in front of* the desk). The professor can sit *on* the desk (when he is being informal) or *behind* the desk, and then his feet are *under* the desk or *beneath* the desk. He can stand *beside* the desk (meaning *next to* the desk), *before* the desk, *between* the desk and you, or even *on* the desk (if he’s really strange). If he’s clumsy, he can bump *into* the desk or try *to* walk *through* the desk (and stuff would fall *off* the desk). Passing his hands *over* the desk or resting his elbows *upon* the desk, he often looks *across* the desk and speaks *of* the desk or *concerning* the desk as if there were nothing else *like* the desk. Because he thinks *of* nothing *except* the desk, sometimes you wonder *about* the desk, what is *in* the desk, what he paid *for* the desk, and if he could live *without* the desk. You can walk *toward* the desk, *to* the desk, *around* the desk, *by* the desk, and even *past* the desk while he sits *at* the desk or leans *against* the desk. And the professor can sit there *in* a bad mood. All *of* this happens, *of* course, *in* time: *during* the class, *before* the class, *until* the class, *throughout* the class, and *after* the class”.

The words you just have seen in *italic font* are all Prepositions. Some Prepositions do other things besides locate in space or time — “*My brother is like my father*”. — but nearly all of them modify in one way or another. It is possible for a Preposition phrase to act as a Noun — “*During a church service is not a good time to discuss picnic plans*”. — but this is seldom appropriate in formal or academic writing.

You may have learnt that ending a sentence with a Preposition is a serious breach of grammatical etiquette. It does not take a grammarian to spot a sentence-ending preposition, so this is an easy

rule to get caught up on (!). This so-called rule itself is a latecomer to the rules of English writing. As a matter of fact, native English speakers do not care about this silly rule. They break it frequently and those who dislike the rule may be fond of this rejoinder written by Literature Nobel Prize winner Winston S. Churchill: *“That is nonsense up with which I shall not put”*.

Common Prepositions			
about	beyond	on	with
above	by	out	without
across	down	outside	according to
after	during	over	because of
against	except	since	by way of
around	for	through	despite
at	from	throughout	in addition to
before	in	till	in front of
behind	inside	to	in place of
below	into	toward	in regard to
beneath	like	under	in spite of
beside	near	until	instead of
besides	of	up	on account of
between	off	upon	out of

The handling of Prepositions are *not logical* but *historical*. Is it any wonder that Prepositions create such troubles for students for whom English is a second language? We say we are *at* the hospital to visit a friend who is *in* the hospital. We lie *in* bed but *on* the couch. We watch a film *at* the cinema but *on* television. For native speakers, these little

words present little difficulty, but try to learn another language, any other language, and you will quickly discover that Prepositions are troublesome wherever you live and learn. The only way a learner of the English language can begin to master the tricky usage of the Preposition is through practice and paying close attention to speech and the written word. Keeping a good dictionary close *at* hand (or *to* hand?) is an important first step.

This chapter contains some interesting and sometimes troublesome Prepositions with brief usage notes. To address all the potential difficulties with Prepositions in idiomatic usage would require volumes. I just wish to give you an idea about their meaning and usage.

First and most important rule is: Learn the general meaning of those Prepositions that deal with movement, position and location. These Prepositions are also used for time and other things.

Prepositions of Movement and Location

We use *to* in order to express movement toward a place.

They were driving *to* work together. She's going *to* the dentist's office this morning.

Toward and *towards* are also helpful Prepositions to express movement. These are simply variant spellings of the same word; use whichever sounds better to you.

We're moving *toward* the light. This is a big step *towards* the project's completion.

Prepositions of Location: <i>in</i> , <i>at</i> , and <i>on</i> and No Preposition			
IN	AT	ON	NO PREPOSITION
(the) bed*	class*	the bed*	downstairs
the bedroom	home	the ceiling	downtown
the car	the library*	the floor	inside
(the) class*	the office	the horse	outside
the library*	school*	the plane	upstairs
school*	work	the train	uptown
* You may sometimes use different prepositions for these locations.			

With the words *home*, *downtown*, *uptown*, *inside*, *outside*, *downstairs*, *upstairs*, we use no Preposition: *My father went upstairs. My mother came home. They both went outside.*

Prepositions with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

Prepositions are sometimes so firmly linked to other words that they have practically become one word. (In fact, in other languages, such as German, they would have become one word.) This occurs in three categories: Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

NOUNS and PREPOSITIONS		
approval of	fondness for	need for
awareness of	grasp of	participation in
belief in	hatred of	reason for
concern for	hope for	respect for
confusion about	interest in	success in
desire for	love of	understanding of

ADJECTIVES and PREPOSITIONS		
afraid of	fond of	proud of
angry at	happy about	similar to
aware of	interested in	sorry for
capable of	jealous of	sure of
careless about	made of	tired of
familiar with	married to	worried about

VERBS and PREPOSITIONS		
apologise for	give up	prepare for
ask about	grow up	study for
ask for	look for	talk about
belong to	look forward to	think about
bring up	look up	trust in
care for	make up	work for
find out	pay for	worry about

Prepositions of Time: FOR and SINCE

We use *for* when we measure time (seconds, minutes, hours, days, months, years): *He held his breath for seven minutes. She's lived there for seven years. The British and Irish have been quarreling for seven centuries.*

We use *since* with a specific date or time: *He's worked here since 1970. She's been sitting in the waiting room since two-thirty.*

Prepositions of Time: AT, ON, and IN

We use **at** to designate specific times: The train is due **at** 12:15 p.m.

We use **on** to designate days and dates: My brother is coming **on** Monday. We are having a party **on** the Fourth of July.

We use **in** for nonspecific times during a day, a month, a season, or a year: She likes to jog **in** the morning. It's too cold **in** winter to run outside. He started the job **in** 1971. He's going to quit **in** August.

Prepositions of Place: AT, ON, and IN

We use **at** for specific addresses: Grammar English lives **at** 55 Brighton Road **in** Guildford.

We use **on** to designate names of streets, avenues, etc.: Her house is on Brighton Road.

And we use **in** for the names of land-areas (towns, counties, states, countries, and continents): She lives **in** Guildford. Guildford is **in** County Surrey. County Surrey is **in** England.

Idiomatic Expressions with Prepositions

agree **to** a proposal (or **with** a person, **on** a price, **in** principle)

argue **about** a matter (or **with** a person, **for** or **against** a proposition)

compare with **to** show likenesses (or differences, similarities)

correspond **to** a thing or **with** a person

differ **from** an unlike thing or person

live with other people (or at an address, in a house or city, on a street,

Unnecessary Prepositions

In everyday speech, we fall into some bad habits, using Prepositions where they are not necessary. It would be a good idea to eliminate these words altogether, but we must be especially careful not to use them in formal, academic prose.

She met **up with** the new coach in the hallway.

The book fell off **of** the desk.

He threw the book out **of** the window.

She wouldn't let the cat inside **of** the house. [or use "**in**"]

Where did they go **to**?

Put the lamp in back of the couch. [use "**behind**" instead]

Where is your college **at**?

Prepositions in Parallel Form

When two words or phrases are used in parallel and require the same Preposition to be idiomatically correct, the Preposition does not have to be used twice: You can wear that outfit in summer and **in** winter.

The female was both attracted by and distracted **by** the male's dance.

However, when the idiomatic use of phrases calls for different Prepositions, we must be careful not to omit one of them: The children were interested *in* and disgusted *by* the movie. It was clear that this player could both contribute *to* and learn *from* every game he played. He was fascinated *by* and enamored *of* this beguiling woman.

The greatest horror to Chinese English students is caused by a combination of *Verb and Preposition* which is known as “*Phrasal Verb*”. The Preposition (or other kind of word) that is joined to the Verb is then called a *particle*. You only have a chance to understand the Phrasal Verb when you understand the basic meaning of English Prepositions. One of reasons that caused this trouble is that most schoolbooks do not explain that those Phrasal Verbs are ruled by their attached Prepositions. So in the following example the word “*in*” is important, not the words “*get, pop or come*”! The consequence is, expressions such as “*come in, get in, pop in, go in, walk in*” contain an identical information: “*move in*”. Another reason is that students do not know what those Prepositions precisely mean. If they would, they could understand *Phrasal Verbs* much better. Let us have a closer look at these **sketches and descriptions**:

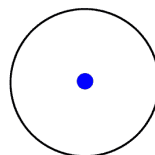


at (在...点 zài...diǎn) (confined to a precise point)

at the station, at home, at the seaside, at the top, at the bottom (of the sea, of the the page), at your feet, at a certain distance.

Little towns and villages: at Windsor, at Eastbourne, at Stratford.

Time: We are going to meet him at two o'clock

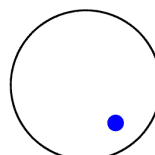


in (在...里 zài...lǐ) (confined to the interior of an area)

in a room, in the north, in the desert, in the distance.

Cities, regions and countries: in London, in Normandy, in Ireland, in Jilin Province.

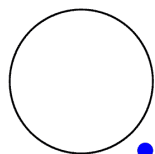
Time: He will arrive in three days. The new semester will begin in September. To be in / on time.



inside, within (内 nèi) (somewhere in an enclosed part or surface)

Inside the town there was no danger.

Somebody is calling from within the house.

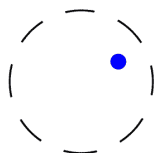


outside (外 wài) (to the exterior of an enclosure)

Outside England this man is unknown.

The rubbish bin is outside.

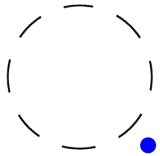
I am going to meet him outside.



within (内 nèi) (within a certain range)

The true Cockney is born within the sounds of Bow bells.

Time: We could finish the job within half an hour



beyond (在...较远处 zài...jiào yuǎnchù) (outside of any range of action)

That bunch of grapes is beyond my reach.
Unfortunately, the murderer fled to a country which is beyond our jurisdiction.



from (从 cóng) (answers the question "where from?" and indicates the original or former location)

He is from India. He came from Amsterdam. She came from the church. They just came from church (service).



from ... to (从...到 cóng...dào) (from original location point to destination point)

We will take a flight from Frankfurt to Beijing.
Time: He works every day from 8 am to 5 pm.



to (到 dào) (answers the question "where to?" and indicates a destination)

He went to Chicago. She goes to the door. We shall go to the theatre.

as far as (据 jù) (up to a certain point)

We took a walk after supper, we went as far as the lighthouse and back.

Time: When we say, It is a quarter to eleven, we mean, it is fifteen minutes before eleven o'clock.



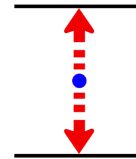
up (向上 xiàngshàng) (ascending movement)

We call it dawn when the first light in the morning turns up and sunrise when the sun goes up. She went up the hill. She came all the way up.

Time: The time is up! (= the time reached the peak. The time came to an end).

down (向下 xiàng xià) (descending movement)

We call it sunset or sundown when the sun goes down in the evening. He went down to find the wine cellar.

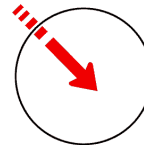


up to (向上 xiàngshàng) (ascending to a certain point or level) She came all the way up to the peak of the hill..

down to (向下 xiàngxià) (descending to a certain point)

Please go down to the third floor landing

Time: Today he will work up to (or until) 7pm.



into (成 chéng) (indicates movement into a space)

I ran into my sister's room.

She looked into my eyes.

But: Put the book in your bag.



out of (出 chū) (indicates movement out of a space)

It was dark when I came out of the company..
Do not take the eggs out of the nest.
Please get the book out of your bag.

Time: *We are running out of time (= the time we have in that space will reach an end).*



towards (朝 cháo) (movement in direction of)

The ship was sailing towards the island. We were driving towards the station when it began to rain hard.



against (针对 zhēnduì) (touching something that resists)

The rain was beating against the wind-screen. We had to swim against the stream. The soldiers were ordered to march against the enemy. We ran against the kerbstone.



on (上 shàng) (lying, sitting, standing)

The book is on the shelf. The flowerpot is on the window-sill. I can see an apple on the ground.

There is a mark on the tablecloth.

Mode of transport: He is going to the town on horseback. She walks home on foot. I am on the bus (train, ship, aeroplane)



on (上 shàng) (hanging, being attached to something)

There is a painting on the wall. I have five fingers on my hand. The chandelier is hanging on the ceiling.

Carried with: I have no money on me.

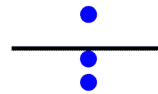
Referring to action: the light has been on all night.

The workers are on strike. Come on!

Indicating support: he lives on bread. They live on social benefits.

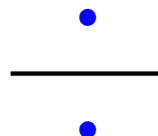
Plans, programmes: Your plan just is not on. What is on tonight?

Time: *We will leave on Sunday.*



over (以上 yǐshàng) (in direct position)

There is a lamp over the table.



under (下 xià) (with or without direct contact)

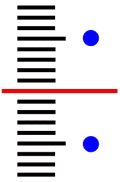
The pen is under your book. The dog is lying under the table.

above (以上 yǐshàng) (with spacial distance)

Above the house I saw an aeroplane. We flew above the clouds.

below, beneath, underneath (下面 xiàmiàn)

From the aeroplane we saw the Great Wall below (beneath, underneath) us.

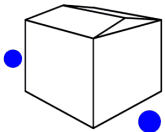


above (在...之上 zài...zhī shàng)

Snowdon is 3500 feet *above* sea-level.

below, beneath (在...之下 zài...zhī xià) (referring to the neutral point of a scale)

It is two degrees below zero this morning. *Beneath* the bridge I can see a small boat. My dress reaches *below* the knee.

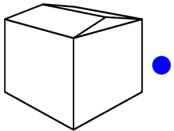


in front of, before (在...前面 zài...qiánmiàn)

In front of the house there is a big oak, behind it there is a garden.

behind (在...后面 zài... hòu miàn)

He stood before me talking about his plans.



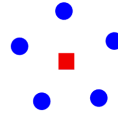
at, by, near, nearby (附近 fùjìn), **next to, close to**

The tree stands by the house. I stand at the window and look out. He sits by the fireplace and reads a book. The teacher's desk is near the door. Come and sit beside (by) me. In the house next to the library there is a public reading room. On the bus I stood close to the bus driver.



between, betwixt (在两者之间 zài liǎngzhě zhī jiān) (a point intermediate two other points in space, times, degrees etc.)

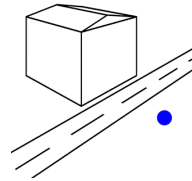
Our rose garden is between the house and the fir-tree.



Time: I guess, he will come between two o'clock and half past two.

among, in the midst of (在...之间 zài...zhījiān) (a point intermediate more than two other points, in a group or number of)

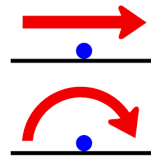
That beech looks beautiful among all the dark-green fir-trees. I do not feel well in the midst of such a large crowd



opposite (相对的 xiāngduì de)

He lives opposite the town hall. Come and sit opposite me at lunch.

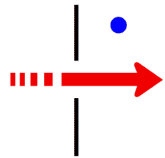
Intellectual: the opposite of yes is no. The opposite of good is bad or not good. The opposite of positive is negative.



over (moving, flying) (越过, 在...之上 yuèguò, zài...zhī shàng)

We flew over the Highlands of Scotland. The horse jumped over all the fences.

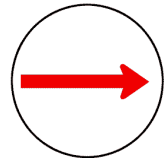
Time: He worked with that company for over three years.



over, across (crossing something) (穿过 chuānguò)

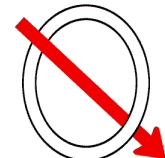
We went over a road and then by boat across the river.

Time: The game is over



through, across (穿过 chuānguò) (transverse, to cross)

I walked through the garden and then across the fields.



through (通过 tōngguò)

The burglar jumped through the window.

Time: We travelled all the day through.



round, about (在附近 zàifùjìn)

to look round a room, to stroll round the garden, to walk about the town.

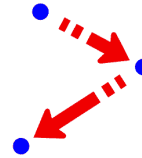
Uncertainty: Is Trevor about? (= Is Trevor somewhere here?). I just found money, it must be round about 300 pounds.

Time: It is about two o'clock.



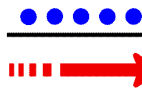
round (环绕 huánràò)

to run round a tree, to go round the corner, to sail round the world



by, via (通过 tōngguò) (detour or roundabout way)

I have come on foot by the fields. We returned by Liverpool. I had to take the flight from London to Tokyo via Paris.



along (沿着 yánzhe)

We walked along the garden fence. There are lilac bushes along that wall. Come along!



past (过 guò)

We walked past the shop.

Time: When we say, It is a quarter past eleven, we mean, it is fifteen minutes after eleven o'clock. The shop closes at half past seven. The shop closes at half after seven. The shop closes at half seven.

Talking about Direction and Position

One of the most important parts of a conversation is to give and understand Direction and Position. Students and teachers often ask me to explain how English speakers ask for the way, the destination, the position, the origin, the derivation, the origination or the Direction. In other words: We need to find out where something or someone is, comes from, or goes to. The Preposition plays the key role in that what we call "orientation". I made the following table in order to give you an idea what kind of Phrases we use, and for what purpose:

LORD HENFIELD'S TABLE OF POSITION AND DIRECTION IN PHRASES

Most students know the words in the first column already, but we need a bit more when we want to talk about position and direction. In English we have a fixed phrase for expressing any particular purpose, depending on what we exactly want to describe. And according to their purpose, we can display all of them in a large table in order to get a good overview.

With the ending **-wards** or **-ward** we deliberately can show only an approximate direction. With the other phrases we describe exact positions, and we can express the direction of origin (where we come from) or the direction of destination (where we go to) very precisely. We use only a limited number of direction words: *at, in, on, to, from, before, in front of, behind, beyond; under, below, beneath, underneath*. Instead of **straight back** we can say **directly back** or **right back**. In connexion with **from the left** or **to the right** or **out of** or **from within** or from above or **from underneath** we can use the words **directly, exactly** or **precisely** in front of them. Mind, Jilin is **in the north of** China (inside), Russia is **north of** China (outside)!

PURPOSE:

General Word	General Position	Precise Position	Direction Of Origin	Vague Direction	Precise Direction	In-Sight Position	Out-Of-Sight Position
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QUESTION:

HOW?	WHERE?	WHERE?	WHERE FROM?	WHERE TO?	WHERE TO?	WHERE?	WHERE?
	Where is it?	Where precisely is it?	Where does it come from?	Where does it go to?	Where precisely does it go to?		

KEYWORDS (that can appear before the phrases):

-	at, on, to	at, on, to	from	-	-	at, before, over, under	behind, beyond, over, under
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WORD OR FULL PHRASE (We can say: **I go** up, on the floor, upwards, upstairs, to the right, over the bridge, behind the wall, beyond the limit, to the opposite side, to the other side, etc.):

up	on; over / above (the)	at / on the topside (of)	from above (the)	upwards (to)	straight up (the)	under the ceiling	over / above the ceiling
down	under; below / beneath / underneath (the)	at / on the underside (of)	from below / beneath / underneath (the)	downwards (to)	straight down (the)	over the floor / bottom	under; below / beneath the floor / bottom / ground
left	at / on the left (of)	at / on the left-hand side (of)	from the left (of)	leftwards (to)	to the left (of)	before the left wall	behind the left wall
right	at / on the right (of)	at / on the right-hand side (of)	from the right (of)	rightwards (to)	to the right (of)	before the right wall	behind the right wall
before / in front of	in front (of)	at / on the frontside (of)	from the front (of)	forewards (to)	straight ahead (to)	before the frontwall	behind the frontwall
back / at the rear	at / in the back (of)	at / on the backside (of)	from the back (of)	backwards (to)	straight back (to)	before the backwall	behind the backwall
north	in the north (of)	at / on the northside (of)	from the north (of)	northwards (to)	to the north (of)	before the northwall	behind the northwall
south	in the south (of)	at / on the southside (of)	from the south (of)	southwards (to)	to the south (of)	before the southwall	behind the southwall
west; the Occident	in the west (of)	at / on the westside (of)	from the west (of)	westwards (to)	to the west (of)	before the westwall	behind the westwall
east; the Orient	in the east (of)	at / on the eastside (of)	from the east (of)	eastwards (to)	to the east (of)	before the eastwall	behind the eastwall
opposite, (a)cross	across (the)	-	from across (the)	crosswards (to)	to the opposite (of)	before the opposite side	behind the opposite
side	in the other side (of)	at / on the other side (of)	from the other side (of)	-	to the other side (of)	before the other side	behind the other side

OTHER WORDS and NAMES; COMMENTS and EXAMPLES:

The Occident, the Orient (used as a name only)	northwest, northeast, southwest, southeast.	inside of, outside of	from the inside , from inside , from within , out of .	inwards, outwards: They go upwards. They turned inwards	to the north side (of), underside (of), left side (of), inside (of), outside (of), etc.	Also: at the left wall (of); under the top (of) = ceiling; on the ground (of) = floor; in front of the wall	When that thing or living being is out of reach or very far out of , then we can say: "beyond the backwall"
The word averse stands for front- side or to the front ; reverse is the backside or means to the back / backwards	below stairs, beneath / underneath the stairs / downstairs; Mind: Jilin is in the north of China (inside China), Russia is north of China (outside China)	Over the topside (distant), at the topside (not attached); on the topside (closely attached or fixed); on the underside (attached), below the underside (not attached).	septentrional = north austral = south occidental = west oriental = east Used as adjectives or in names: "australwind".	We go upwards, westwards (to), etc. We went upstairs (to), We go downstairs (to)	She goes up (to), more precise: she goes straight up (to)	With these expressions, we can say that something has distance: under the ceiling (distance to the ceiling);	With these expressions, we can describe positions with are on or at the other side when we cannot see it : "behind the backwall".

Lists Of Prepositions

Direction words or Prepositions can be attached to several different sorts of words. Here we can see how English Direction words connect to other words: A Preposition may give the word it follows a particular meaning. It can follow Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and it also can be an important part of a Phrase:

1. *Prepositions after Nouns*

abundance of	access to	admission to
affection for	allegiance to	anxiety for
appetite for	aptitude for	arrival at / in
assent to	assurance of	attack on
attention on	authority for / on / over	bargain for / with
battle with	benevolence towards	blindness to
cause for / of	caution against	comparison with
compassion for	compensation for	complaint against
concession to	confidence in	conformity to / with
contempt for	control over	conviction of
correspondence with	craving for	dependence on
desire for	disgust at	dislike of
distaste for	distrust of	duty to
eagerness for	economy of	enmity for / with / against
envy of	equality with	escape from

esteem for	excuse for	experience in / of
exposure of	failure of	faith in
freedom from / of	glance at	gratitude for / to
greed for	grief at / for	guess at
hatred of	hope of	identity to
indifference to	indulgence of	inquiry into
insight into	interview with	intimacy with
intrusion into	invitation to	judge of
lecture on	likeness to	liking for
limit to	longing for	look at
lust for	need for	obedience to
objection to	obstruction to	offence against
passion for	pity for	power over
prejudice against	preparation for	pride in
proficiency in	quarrel with	question on
regard for	regret for	reply to
request for	resemblance to	respect for
revolt against	search for	sin against
stain on	submission to	sympathy with
testimony to	traitor to	trust in
want of	witness of	wonder at
yearning for	zeal for	zest for

2a. Prepositions after Adjectives

absorbed in	accomplished in	accountable for (thing)
accountable to (person)	affectionate to	alarmed at
alien to	anxious for	applicable to
associated with	bent on	blind in / to
born in	born of	careful about
careful of	common to	competent for
competent in	concerned about	concerned in
condemned to	confident of	contrary to
cured of	deprived of	desirous of
despairing of	destitute of	detrimental to
diffident of	disgusted in / with (person)	disgusted with (thing)
earnest in	easy of	eligible for
envious of	equal to	exposed to
faithful to	false of	false to
familiar with	fatigued with	free from
glad about	glad of	greedy for
guilty of	hopeful of	ignorant of
immaterial to	immersed in	impatient of
indifferent to	indispensable to	indulgent to
infected with / by	infested with	innocent of
intent on	intimate with	involved in
lame in	lax in	level with

liable for / to	lost to	loyal to
mad with	mindful of	moved by / to
obedient to	obliged to	overcome with / by
overwhelmed with / by	partial to	particular to
previous to	productive of	proficient in
radiant with	ready for	reduced to
relative to	relevant to	requisite for/to
respect to / towards	responsible to	satisfied with
sensible of	sensitive to	shocked at
slow of	steeped in	subordinate to
true to	veiled in	versed in
weak in	worthy of	zealous in

2b. Prepositions after Adjectives, with Examples

accused of (accused of a crime)	accustomed to (accustomed to a life of luxury)
acquainted with (acquainted with him)	addicted to (addicted to gambling)
afraid of (afraid of dogs)	agreeable to (agreeable to the idea)
akin to (akin to a guitar)	alarmed at / by (alarmed at the prospect of)
amazed at (amazed at his rapid recovery)	amazed by (amazed by the performance)
angry with (angry with a person)	angry at (angry at something)

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annoyed about/by (annoyed by his carelessness)	annoyed with (annoyed with him for not calling)
anxious about (anxious about flying)	ashamed of (ashamed of yourself)
astonished by (astonished by his successive wins)	aware of (aware of the dangers)
bad at (bad at chess)	bad for (bad for health)
bored with (bored with her job)	busy with (busy with his work)
capable of (capable of murder)	certain about (certain about what he said)
certain of (certain of how much he put in)	clever at (clever at knitting)
clever with (clever with his hand)	clever of (clever of him)
conscious of (conscious of the need to ...)	critical of (critical of others)
crowded with (crowded with tourists)	delighted with (delighted with the present)
dependent on (dependent on their parents for food)	different from (different from each other)
different to (different to mine)	different in (different in their sizes)
disappointed with/in (with your work/in our plans)	disappointed about (disappointed about not being told)
disappointed at (disappointed at not being invited)	disappointed to (disappointed to see him there)
engaged to (engaged to a tall man)	envious of (envious of her success)

excellent at (excellent at speaking)	excited about (excited about going on a boat trip)
excited at (excited at the new discoveries)	excited by (excited by the possibility of promotion)
famous for (famous for its cheese)	famous as (famous as a singer)
fed up with (fed up with waiting)	fit for (fit for the job)
fit to (fit to look after old people)	fond of (fond of her, fond of swimming)
friendly to/towards (friendly to visitors)	frightened of (frightened of spider)
full of (full of mistakes)	furious about/at/with (furious with him for not)
generous of (generous of you contribute so much)	generous to (generous to the kids)
good at (good at reading maps)	good for (good for your health)
good of (good of you to come)	happy about (happy about riding a horse)
hopeless at (hopeless at mathematics)	happy with (happy with my new car)
impressed with/by (impressed with the quality)	incapable of (incapable of passing the examination)
interested in (interested in politics)	interested to (interested to know your idea)
jealous of (jealous of his success)	keen on (keen on photography)
kind of (kind of you to ...)	kind to (been kind to me)

married to (married to a wealthy man)	nervous about (nervous about my exams)
nervous of (always nervous of rats)	nice of (nice of you to help)
pleased about (pleased about the results)	pleased with (pleased with his new house)
pleased to (pleased to see you here)	proud of (proud of his new house/proud of winning)
quick at (quick at writing/quick at losing her temper)	ready for (ready for it)
responsible for (responsible for the murder)	scared of (scared of dogs)
shocked at (shocked at their loss)	short of (short of money)
similar to (His opinions are similar to mine.)	sorry for (feel sorry for him)
stupid of (stupid of him to say that)	sure of (sure of attending)
surprised at (surprised at her behaviour)	suspicious of/about (suspicious of his intentions)
terrified at (terrified at the possibility of meeting him)	terrified of (terrified of heights)
tired of (tired of hearing the same remark)	tolerant of (tolerant of their son's beliefs)
typical of (typical of him to behave like that)	upset about/by/over (upset about the disagreement)
used to (used to traveling by night)	worried about (worried about her exams)

3. Prepositions after Verbs (= Phrasal Verbs)

<u>about</u>	care about	complain about / of / to
do something about	dream about / of	speak about / against
hear about / from / of	read about	remind (somebody) about/of
talk about / to	tell (someone) about	think about / of
walk about	warn about / of	write about
<u>across</u>	swim across	walk across
<u>after</u>	crave after / for	hanker after
look after / at / for / in	run after	
<u>against</u>	fight against	hit against
lean against	offend against	speak against / about
struggle against	vote against	
<u>among</u>	be among	divide among
quarrel among	share among	
<u>at</u>	aim at / for	arrive at
fire (a gun) at	glance at	have a look at
hint at	jeer at	laugh at
look at / for / after / in	point at	shoot at
shout at / to / out	smile at / on	stare at
throw at / to	wait at	wink at
<u>beside</u>	sit beside	
<u>by</u>	abide by	live by

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<u>down</u>	burn down	cut down
fall down	lie down	put down
sit down	stand down	
<u>for</u>	answer for / to	apologise for / to
apply for / to	ask for / of	blame for / on
call for	care for	crave for / after
forgive (somebody) for	leave for	look for / at / after / in
pay for	punish for	search for
thank (somebody) for	wait for	yearn for
<u>from</u>	absolve from	abstain from
come from	differ from / with	escape from
hear from / about / of	hide from	prevent from
prohibit from	protect (somebody / thing) from	recover from
run away from	suffer from	
<u>in</u>	assist in / with	believe in
deal in / with	excel in	live in
fill in	glory in	retire in
involve (oneself) in	look in / after / at / for	put in
send in	specialise in	spend time in
succeed in	swim in	work in
<u>into</u>	break into / off / with	bump into
burst into	come / go into	crash into
cut into	dive into	divide into
drive into	fall into	fly into

jump into	pour it into	put it into
run into	split into	turn into
<u>of</u>	accuse of	approve of
ask of / for	beware of	break (oneself) of
complain of / about / to	consist of	despair of
die of	divest (one's mind) of	dream of / about
hear of/about/from	made of	remind (somebody) of/about
repent of	suspect of	take care of
think of / about	warn of / about	
<u>off</u>	break off / into / with	fall off / upon
finish off	get off / on	leave off
set off	switch off / on	turn off / on
<u>on</u>	blame on / for	call on
carry on	comment on	compliment (somebody) on
concentrate on	congratulate (somebody) on	decide on
get on/off	insist on	live on
put it on	rely on	smile on / at
spend (money) on	stand on	switch on / off
turn on/off	urge (a fact) on	work on
<u>out</u>	blow out	come out
find out	go out to	leave out
look out	pick out	run out of

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shout out / at / to	throw it out	out of the window
<u>past</u>	go past	walk past
<u>through</u>	see through	look through
come through	go through	drive through
drive through	break trough	push / pull through
<u>to</u>	accede to	agree to / with
answer to / for	apologise to / for	apply to / for
attend to	belong to	break (bad news) to
bring to	complain to / about / of	correspond to / with
describe to	explain to	force to
forget to	go to	happen to
hope to	invite (somebody) to	jump to
keep to	like to	listen to
need to	occur to	prefer to
promise to	reconcile to	reply to
send it to	shout to / at / out	speak to / with / about
submit to	talk to / about	try to
throw to / at	wish to	write to
yield to		
<u>toward / towards</u>	come towards	drive towards
go towards	move towards	proceed towards
turn towards	walk towards	
<u>upon</u>	enter upon	
<u>under</u>	crawl under	go under
labour under	lay it under	lie under

put it under	stand under	
<u>over</u>	come over	fall over
go over	jump over	knock over
run over	take over	walk over
<u>up</u>	add up	break up
catch up	clean up	climb up
cover up	dig up	drive up
get up	give up	go up
grow up	hurry up	keep up
lock up	look up	mix up
pick up	put up	ring up
run up	save up	shut up
stay up	tie up	turn up
wake up	walk up	wash up
<u>with</u>	assist with / in	agree with / to
break with / into / off	collide with	comply with
condole with	correspond with/to	deal with/in
differ with / from	fill (something) with	overwhelm with
play with	provide (somebody) with	quarrel with
sleep with	speak with / to / about	stay with
supply (somebody) with	talk with	work with / on
<u>without</u>	went without his ticket	went without saying goodbye

4. Prepositions - Used in Static Phrases

<u>about</u>	about 5 o'clock	about 8 pounds
<u>above</u>	above 2 pounds	above the roof
<u>after</u>	after 10 o'clock	after lunch
after this week	5 minutes after 3	5 after 3
<u>among</u>	among the twelve	among the trees
<u>at</u>	at 5 o'clock	at 5
at a distance	at a time	at any rate
at Christmas	at first	at home
at last	at once	at school
at the airport	at the door	at the top
<u>before</u>	before 3 o'clock	before the war
5 minutes before 3	5 before 3	before me / in front of me
<u>below</u>	below fifty	below the sea
down below	below zero degrees	
<u>beside</u>	beside me	beside the door
<u>by</u>	by heart	by me
by mistake	by the dozen	by the side of
by this week / by lunchtime	by train / bus / car / taxi, aircraft	one by one
side by side	by Jane Austen	by my side
<u>during</u>	during the holidays	during the lesson
during the night	during her lifetime	
<u>for</u>	for two dollars	for a week
for an hour	for ten minutes	for you / him / her

<u>from</u>	from here	from London
from today	from its origin	
<u>in</u>	in 1928	in a few moments
in a hurry	in a week's time	in October
in front of	in great danger	in Wellington
in my class	in my opinion	in my view
in prison	in the army	in the box
in the crowd	in the end	in the evening
in this room	in time	in trouble
<u>near</u>	near my school	near the market
<u>of</u>	a box of	a tin of
a piece of	half of	a quarter of
many of	lots of	plenty of
much of	more of	most of
little of	less of	least of
a little of	a few of	a lot of
a great deal of	all of	none of
several of	the back of	the top of
the front of	the side of	the bottom of
the ceiling of	the floor of	the wall of
<u>off</u>	a long way off	be well off
off the grass	off the road	be off
<u>on</u>	on Friday	on the 11th of March
on holiday	on the left	on the right
on time	on foot	on the wall
on the ceiling	on the floor	on the topside
on the bottomside	5 fingers on my hand	a spot on my shirt

<u>over</u>	over fifty	over 8 pounds
over the ground		
<u>past</u>	past hope	a quarter past
half past	5 minutes past 3	5 past 3
<u>since</u>	since 3 o'clock	since last week
since Monday	since she died	since the party
since you left	since that time	since yesterday
<u>through</u>	all through	through the door
put me through	through the window	
<u>to</u>	5 minutes to 3	5 to 3
next to	to me	in order to
<u>under</u>	under a tree	under age
under fifteen years old	under 16 of age	under repair
under ten euros	under the control of	under the impression that
under the influence of	under the table	under the water
underneath		
<u>until</u>	until 5 o'clock	until 5
until next week	until tomorrow	until 2010
<u>with</u>	with a brush	with a knife
with a stick	with you	with common sense
<u>without</u>	without doubt	without his help

5a. The Prepositions **IN, ON, AT** in Phrases of Time

Some prepositions are used differently in the United States (US)

in	on	at
Months / Years: in December in 2017 in the last century in the next year	Days: on Monday on a weekday on weekdays on the weekend US on weekends US	Clock Time: at 7 o'clock at noon at midnight at the weekend
Parts Of Days: in the night in the middle of the night	Parts Of Days: on Friday evening	Mealtimes: at breakfast at lunchtime at tea time / supper time
Seasons: in (the) summer in spring, autumn / fall US, winter	Dates: on the 22nd of October on Monday (the) 16th	Festivals: at Christmas at Easter
An Event In The Future: in five minutes in twenty years (but an Event In The Past: two days ago ten minutes ago ten years ago)	Special Dates: on my birthday on his anniversary on Christmas eve on New Year's eve on the eve of battle on (the) holiday on vacation US	
Phrases: to be in time (= before it is too late and the bank is closed)	Phrases: to be on time (= to be punctual according to a particular schedule)	

5b. The Prepositions IN, ON, AT in Phrases of Location

in	on	at
Regions: in France in the valley in the mountains Cities / Large Areas: in Salisbury in the park Street / Roads: shops in the street Buildings / Rooms: in the shop / car in the toilet / loo Places: in school US in university US in the yard / garden in the field / woods Containers: in the bottle / box / cup / tank / fridge Substances: sugar in my tea	Surfaces: on the surface on the floor / wall / ceiling / table / desk / shelf / roof on the cover on a sheet of paper Directions / Position on the left on the left-hand-side on the right on the right-hand-side Street / Roads: The shop is on Fox Road Transport:: on foot on the aeroplane on the train / bus / tram Phrases: on the streets (= out of job, earning a living as a prostitute) on the road (travelling about, living a life as a vagrant or tramp, out of job)	Specific Places: at the bus stop at home / work at Frank's house at the back of the shop at school at university at the company Addresses: at 22, Hare Lane Public Places: at the station at the cinema at the doctor's at the shop at the supermarket Events: at Anna's party at last year's meeting

Some more Examples with AT, ON and IN (time)

We use AT:

- with particular points on the clock:

*I'll see you **at five o'clock**.*

- with particular points in the day:

*The helicopter took off **at midday** and headed for the island.*

- with particular points in the week:

*What are you doing **at the weekend**?*

- with special celebrations:

***At the New Year**, millions of people travel home to be with their families (but we say **on** your birthday).*

We don't use *at* with the question *What time ...?* in informal situations:

What time are you leaving? (preferred to *At what time are you leaving?*)

We use ON:

- with dates:

*We moved into this house **on 25 October 1987**.*

- with a singular day of the week to refer to one occasion:

*I've got to go to London **on Friday**.*

- with a Plural day of the week to refer to repeated events:

*The office is closed **on Fridays**.* (every Friday) In informal situations, we often leave out *on* before Plural days:

*Do you work **Saturdays**?*

- with special dates:

*What do you normally do **on your birthday**?*

We use **IN**:

- with parts of the day:

*I'll come and see you **in the morning** for a cup of coffee, okay?*

- with months:

*We usually go camping **in July or August**.*

- with years:

*The house was built **in 1835**.*

- with seasons:

*The garden is wonderful **in the spring** when all the flowers come out.*

- with long periods of time:

*The population of Europe doubled **in the nineteenth century**.*

AT or **ON**?

We use *at* to talk about public holidays and weekends, but when we talk about a particular special day or weekend, we use *on*.

Compare

<i>We never go away at the New Year because the traffic is awful.</i>	<i>On New Year's Day, the whole family gets together.</i>
<i>I'll go and see my mother at the weekend if the weather's okay.</i>	<i>The folk festival is always held on the last weekend in July.</i>

*Note that American English speakers usually say **on the weekend**.

IN or **ON**?

We use *in* with *morning*, *afternoon*, *evening* and *night*, but we use *on* when we talk about a specific morning, afternoon, etc., or when we describe the part of the day.

Compare

<i>I always work best in the morning. I often get tired in the afternoon.</i>	<i>The ship left the harbour on the morning of the ninth of November.</i>
<i>In the evening they used to sit outside and watch the sun going down.</i>	<i>It happened on a beautiful summer's evening.</i>

IN TIME or **ON TIME**?

We say "I could not get to work **on time** today" (it means: "I was **late**, so I began my work later"). When we say "I could not get to the airport **in time**" (that means "I was **too late**, so I could not fly at all!").

AT or **IN**?

In the night usually refers to one particular night; *at night* refers to any night in general:

*I was awake **in the night**, thinking about all the things that have happened.*

*'It's not safe to travel **at night**,' the officer said.*

AT THE END or **IN THE END**?

We use *at the end* (often with *of*) to talk about the point in time where something finishes. We use *in the end* to talk about things that happen after a long time or after a series of other events:

***At the end** of the film, everyone was crying.*

Not: ~~*In the end of the film ...*~~

*I looked everywhere for the book but couldn't find it, so **in the end** I bought a new copy.*

AT THE BEGINNING or IN THE BEGINNING?

We use **at the beginning** (often with *of*) to talk about the point where something starts. We usually use **in the beginning** when we contrast two situations in time:

At the beginning of every lesson, the teacher told the children a little story.

In the beginning, nobody understood what was happening, but after she explained everything very carefully, things were much clearer.

Other uses of IN with time

We use *in* to say how long it takes someone to do something:

He was such a clever musician. He could learn a song **in about five minutes**.

We use an apostrophe -s construction (*in a year's time*, *in two months' time*) to say when something will happen. We don't use it to say how long someone takes to do something:

I will not say goodbye because we will be seeing each other again **in three days' time**. We can also say *in three days*, *without time*, *in this example*.

He ran the marathon **in six hours and 20 minutes**.

Not: ~~He ran the marathon in six hours and 20 minutes' time.~~

Time expressions without AT, ON, IN

We don't normally use *at*, *on* or *in* before time expressions beginning with *each*, *every*, *next*, *last*, *some*, *this*, *that*, *one*, *any*, *all*:

He plays football **every Saturday**.

Are you free **next Monday** at two o'clock?

Last summer we rented a villa in Portugal.

AT, ON and IN (time): typical errors

- We use **on** not **at** to talk about a particular day:

*The two couples were married in two different cities **on the same day**, 25 years ago.*

Not: ... ~~at the same day, 25 years ago.~~

- We do not use *at* to refer to dates:

*The General was killed **on 26 August**.*

Not: ... ~~at 26 August.~~

- We use *at*, not *in*, with *weekend(s)*:

*What do you usually do **at the weekend**? Do you go away?*

Not: ~~What do you usually do in the weekend?~~

- We use *in* with months, not *on*:

*They are going to Australia **in September** for a conference.*

Not: ~~They're going to Australia on September ...~~

THE MEANING OF PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES

Prefix

Prefixes are letters which we add to the beginning of a word to make a new word with a different meaning. Prefixes were independent Prepositions or Adverbs an long time ago. They were so often connected to other words so that they became a fixed part of those words. You can guess and understand English words better when you learn the most important Prefixes. The word "Prefix" is itself made up of the stem **-fix** (meaning "attach"), and the Prefix **pre-** (meaning "before"), both of which are derived from the Roman language Latin. Prefixes can create a new word opposite in meaning to the word the prefix is attached to. They can make a word negative or express relations of time, place or manner. Examples:

Base Word	Prefixed Word	Type Of Meaning
<i>possible</i>	<i>impossible</i>	opposite / negation
<i>able</i>	<i>unable</i>	opposite / negation
<i>payment</i>	<i>non-payment</i>	opposite / negation
<i>war</i>	<i>pre-war; post-war</i>	time (before / after)
<i>terrestrial</i>	<i>extraterrestrial</i>	place (outside of/beyond)
<i>cook</i>	<i>overcook</i>	manner (too much)

*I am sorry, I was **unable** to attend the meeting. **Non-payment** of fees could result in a student being asked to leave the course. Has anyone ever really met an **extraterrestrial** being? (meaning a being from another planet). The meat was **overcooked** and quite tasteless.*

The most common Prefixes:

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
<i>anti-</i>	against / opposed to	anti-government, anti-racist, anti-war, anti-inflammatory
<i>auto-</i>	self	autobiography, automobile
<i>co- / col- com- / con- / cor-</i>	with, together	cooperation, working together, confederation, commingle, colleague, correlation, cohabit
<i>contra-</i>	against	contradiction, contraindication
<i>de-</i>	undo, not; reverse or remove, change	deactivate, de-classify, decontaminate, demotivate
<i>dis-</i>	undo, not; reverse or remove	disappear, disagree, displeasure, disqualify
<i>down-</i>	reduce, lower, worsen, reduce	downgrade, downhearted, downshift, downfall, downstairs
<i>extra-</i>	beyond, outside	extraordinary, extraterrestrial
<i>hyper-</i>	extreme, too much	hyperactive, hypertension
<i>il-, im-, in-, ir-</i>	not	illegal, impossible, insecure, irregular
<i>inter-</i>	between	interactive, international
<i>mega-, mega(lo)-</i>	very big, million, important	megabyte, mega-deal, megaton, megastar; megalopolis, megalomaniac
<i>mid-</i>	middle	midday, midnight, mid-October
<i>mis-</i>	incorrectly, badly, wrong, astray	misaligned, mislead, misspelt, misinformation, misguide, mistake

non-	not, no	non-payment, non-smoking, non-stop
over-	too much; on top, above, excess	overcook, overcharge, overrate, overexpression, overcoat, over(re)act
out-	better, faster, longer, beyond	outdo, out-perform, outrun, outwit, outmanoeuvre, outreach, outflank
post-	after	post-election, post-war, postoperative; postcard, postmark
pre-	before; already	prehistoric, pre-war, preassembled
pro-	in favour of	pro-communist, pro-democracy
re-	again	reconsider, redo, rewrite, reestablish, revisit, rerun, re-open
semi-	half, partial	semicircle, semi-retired, semi-final
sub-	under, below	submarine, sub-Saharan
super-	above, beyond	supermarket, super-hero, supermodel
tele-	far, at a distance	television, telepathic, telephone, telegraph, telegram, telescope
trans-	across, connecting	transatlantic, transfer, translate
ultra-	beyond; extremely	ultra-compact, ultrasound, ultraviolet
un-	not; opposite, remove; reverse	undo, unpack, unhappy, unopened, unnecessary, unequal, untie, unease
uni-	by or become one	unilateral, unify, unisex, unity, unicycle
under-	less than, beneath	underexposure, undercook, underestimate
up-	increase, make or move higher	upgrade, uphill, upstairs, upshift, upstart
vice-	deputy	vice-principal, vice-president

Other Prefixes:

Prefix	Meaning	Example
aero-	air	aeroplane, aerodynamic, aeronautics
all-	all, together	all-age, all-new, all-purpose, all-season
a-	not	asymmetric, not symmetric
acro-	high	acrophobia, fear of heights
Afro-	relating to Africa	Afro-American
agro-	field	agrolology, agronomy, agrochemical, agrobiology
an-	not	aneuploid, not euploid
Anglo-	relating to England	Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-American
ante-	before	anteroom, antecedent, antebellum = before war
arch-	highest, worst	arch-rival, archangel, arch-enemy
astro-	star	astrobiology, astronomy, astronaut, astrology
audio-	to hear, listen	audio-recording, audiotape, audiovisual
be-	do or make	becalm, bedeviled, befriend, behead, bewitch
bi-	two	bicentennial (= two centuries), bicycle
bio-	life, biological	biology, biography
cardi-	heart	cardiac, cardiogramme, cardiologist
centi-	one-hundredth	centigramme, centigrade, centimetre, centilitre
circum-	around, surround	circumscribe, circumnavigate, circumcision
counter-	against	countermeasure, action against
chron-	time	chronic, chronometer, chronicle, chronology
crypto-	hidden, secret	cryptography
deca-	ten	decagon, decagram
deci-	one tenth	decimetre, decilitre, December (10th month)
demi-	half	demigod
demo-	people	democracy, demography
dis-/di-/dif-	two, apart	differ, dissect, divide, diatomic, two atoms

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<i>du-/duo-</i>	two	duet, duo
<i>dys-</i>	bad, wrong	dysfunction, bad function
<i>eco-</i>	ecological	ecosystem, ecology, eco-technology
<i>ego-</i>	related to me or I	egocentric, egoist, egomaniac
<i>electro-</i>	electric, electricity	electro-analysis, electrocute, electrode
<i>epi-</i>	on, above	epidural, outside the dura mater
<i>em-</i>	in, into	embark, embed, embitter, embody, empower
<i>en-</i>	caused to be	encourage, endanger, enforce, enrage, enslave
<i>euro-</i>	Europe	Euro-bank, Euro-currency, Europarlament
<i>ex-</i>	out of	exit, export; ex-boyfriend, ex-president
<i>fore-</i>	front-, before	forearm, foredeck, forehead, forecast, foresee
<i>free-</i>	without obstacle	free-flowing, free-moving, free-running
<i>fresh-</i>	fresh, new	fresh-baked, fresh-fried, fresh-made
<i>full-</i>	the entire extent	full-scale, full-size, full-time, full-speed
<i>geo-</i>	relating to the earth	geography, geology, geometry, geophysics
<i>half-</i>	half	half-asleep, half-pay, half-empty, half-sister
<i>hand-</i>	by hand	hand-made, hand-wash, handwritten
<i>hemi-</i>	half	hemisphere, half of a sphere
<i>hexa-</i>	six	hexagon, six-sided polygon
<i>homo-</i>	same	homogeneous, homologous, homonym
<i>hydro-</i>	related to water,	hydroelectricity, hydraulic
<i>hypo-</i>	a little; not enough	hypokalemia, not enough potassium in blood
<i>ig-</i>	not	ignoble = not noble; ignorant = not knowing
<i>il-</i>	not	illegal, not legal
<i>im-</i>	not	impossible, imbalance, lack of balance
<i>in-</i>	not	inactive, not active
<i>Indo-</i>	India; Indian	Indo-European, Indo-Germanic
<i>infra-</i>	below, beneath	infrared, below red on the spectrum
<i>intra-</i>	inside, within	intracellular, inside a cell, intravenous
<i>ir-</i>	not	irregular, not regular

<i>kilo-</i>	one thousand times	kilogramme, kilometre, kilowatt, kilohertz
<i>macro-</i>	large-scale	macroeconomics, workings of entire economies
<i>mal-</i>	bad(ly), wrong	malocclusion, bad occlusion, malnourish
<i>man-</i>	human	man-made, man-eater, manhunt, manslaughter
<i>maxi-</i>	very long or large	maxi-single, single with extras, maxi-skirt
<i>meso-</i>	middle	Mesoamerican, middle of the Americas
<i>micro-</i>	small-scale	micrometer, small-measurement instrument
<i>milli-</i>	one thousandth	milligramme, millimetre, millilitre, milliampere
<i>mini-</i>	small	miniature, minicab, minibus, miniskirt
<i>mock-</i>	as if; imitate	mock-fight, mock-test, mock-modesty
<i>mono-</i>	one, sole, only,	monotheism, monogamy, monocle
<i>multi-</i>	many	multicultural, monologue, monogamy
<i>neo-</i>	new	neolithic, neo-classical, neo-Nazism
<i>neuro-</i>	nerve	neurology, neurosurgeon, neurobiologist
<i>new-</i>	new	newborn, newfound, new-baked, new-wed
<i>news-</i>	new	newsagent, newsletter, newspaper
<i>octo-</i>	eight	octopus, October (the 8th Roman month)
<i>omni-</i>	all	omnipotent, omnipresent
<i>once-</i>	one time, the past	once-famous, once-powerful, once-popular
<i>paleo-</i>	old	paleolithic
<i>pan-</i>	(involving) all	pan-American, pan-German, pan-Slavism
<i>para-</i>	beside; beyond; related to; altered	paranormal, paramilitary, parallel, paramedic, parachute, paratrooper, paragliding
<i>penta-</i>	five	pentagon, pentagram, Pentateuch
<i>per-</i>	through; throughout	percutaneous, through the skin
<i>peri-</i>	around	pericardial, around the heart
<i>phono-</i>	sound	phonic, phonetic, phonograph
<i>photo-</i>	light	photoelectric, photography
<i>poly-</i>	many	polyglot, polygamy, polysyllabic, polytechnic
<i>proto-</i>	first; precursor	Proto-Indo-European

<i>pseudo-</i>	false, specious	pseudonym, fake name
<i>quadr-</i>	four	quadrilateral, quadrangle, quadruple
<i>quasi-</i>	resembling	quasireligious, quasi-official, quasi-academic
<i>retro-</i>	backwards	retrograde
<i>self-</i>	[acting on or by] oneself	self-cleaning, self-educated, self-employed, self-criticism, self-defence; by your good-self
<i>socio-</i>	society	sociolinguistic, socio-political, socio-economic
<i>step-</i>	relation by marriage	stepbrother, stepmother, stepson
<i>supra-</i>	above	supraorbital, above the eye sockets
<i>sur-</i>	above, over	surreal, surrender
<i>syn- syl- sym- sy-</i>	together, with	synthesis, symbol, syllable, sympathy, synonym, system, synchronise
<i>tech-</i>	skill	technical, technique, technician
<i>thermo</i>	related to heat	thermometer, thermosflask, thermoelectric
<i>tetra-</i>	four	tetravalent, four valence electrons
<i>tri-</i>	three	tripartite, triangle, tricycle, tripod, trilogy
<i>twi-</i>	two	twibill, twilight
<i>video-</i>	to see, watch	video-surveillance, videotape, videorecorder
<i>well-</i>	good	well-behaved, well-dressed, well-known, well-loved, well-written, well-educated, well-paid, well-deserved, well-respected, well-read
<i>with-</i>	against	withdraw, withstand
<i>xeno-</i>	foreign	xenophobia, fear of strangers or foreigners

Hyphens: **COOPERATION** or **CO-OPERATION**?

There are no absolute rules for when to use a hyphen or when to write a prefixed word as one whole word (see the examples in the table). A good dictionary may tell you how to write a prefixed word. Native speakers write, or do not write, a hyphen according to feeling. A hyphen is written to emphasise the meaning of the Prefix.

Suffix

A suffix is a letter or group of letters added at the end of a word which makes a new word.

Words	Suffix	New Words
<i>forget, use</i>	<i>-ful</i>	<i>forgetful, useful</i>
<i>state, govern</i>	<i>-ment</i>	<i>statement, government</i>
<i>complicate, create</i>	<i>-ion</i>	<i>complication, creation</i>

The new word is most often a different word class from the original word. In the table above, the suffix *-ful* has changed verbs to adjectives, *-ment*, and *-ion* have changed verbs to nouns. If you see a word ending in *-ment*, for example, it is likely to be a noun (e.g. *commitment, contentment*).

Suffixes: Spelling

Often, the suffix causes a spelling change to the original word. In the table above, the *-e* ending of *complicate* and *create* disappears when the *-ion* suffix is added. Other examples of spelling changes include:

1. *beauty, duty* + *-ful* → *beautiful, dutiful* (*-y* changes to *i*)
2. *heavy, ready* + *-ness* → *heaviness, readiness* (*-y* changes to *i*)
3. *able, possible* + *-ity* → *ability, possibility* (*-le* changes to *i*)
4. *permit, omit* + *-ion* → *permission, omission* (*-t* changes to *ss*)

In linguistics, a Suffix is an Affix which is placed after the stem of a word. Common examples are case endings, which indicate the grammatical case of Nouns or Adjectives, and Verb endings, which

form the Conjugation of Verbs. There are two sorts of Suffixes: **Inflectional Suffixes** can carry grammatical information and **Derivational Suffixes** carry lexical information. (In linguistics, derivation is the process of forming a new word on the basis of an existing word, e.g. *happiness* from *happy*. **Inflectional Suffixes:** Inflection changes grammatical properties of a word within its syntactic category. **Example:** *I was hoping the cloth wouldn't fade, but it has faded quite a bit.* The Suffix *-ing* indicates a Continuous Aspect, *-n't* shows a negative statement, *-ed* inflects the root-word fade to indicate Past tense.

Some Inflectional Suffixes In present-day English:

Suffix	Meaning and Usage
-s	third person singular present
-ed	past tense / past participle
-t	past tense / past participle
-ing	progressive / continuous / gerund: shopping
-en	past participle
-s	plural
-en	plural (irregular)
-er	comparative
-est	superlative
-n't	negative (contracted form of "not")
-er	personalises verbs: bake – baker; but: act - actor
-en	changes adjectives into verbs: short – shorten
-ess	changes male to female forms: lion - lioness

Common Suffixes and examples

Suffixes for Nouns with which you can build your own words:

Suffix	Examples
-based	class-based, home-based, market-based
-bound	duty-bound, east-bound, London-bound
-conscious	class-conscious, safety-conscious, self-conscious
-less	homeless, hopeless, useless, worthless, senseless
-made	German-made, hand-made, man-made, UK-made
-poor	nutrient-poor, oxygen-poor, vitamin-poor
-proof	bullet-proof, soundproof, waterproof
-related	family-related, drug-related, job-related, race-related
-rich	carbon-rich, fibre-rich, protein-rich
-sized	apple-sized, postcard-sized, oversized, undersized
-side	bedside, fireside, riverside
-stricken	horror-stricken, panic-stricken, poverty-stricken

Suffixes for Describing Words (Adjectives and Adverbs) with which you can build your own words:

Suffix	Examples
-fold	twofold, threefold, many-fold, hundred-fold
-headed	clear-headed, hot-headed, muddle-headed
-minded	absent-minded, liberal-minded, open-minded
-most	foremost, innermost, topmost, uppermost, utmost
-ness	happiness, kindness, usefulness
-ological	biological, ecological, ideological, zoological
-side	alongside, offside,

Other Suffixes

Noun Suffixes

Suffix	Examples Of Nouns
<i>-age</i>	baggage, village, postage
<i>-al</i>	octagonal, hexagonal, arrival, burial, deferral
<i>-ance / -ence</i>	reliance, defence, insistence
<i>-dom</i>	boredom, freedom, kingdom
<i>-ee</i>	employee, payee, trainee
<i>-er/-or</i>	driver, writer, director
<i>-hood</i>	brotherhood, childhood, neighbourhood
<i>-ism</i>	capitalism, Marxism, socialism (philosophies)
<i>-ist</i>	capitalist, Marxist, socialist (followers of philosophies)
<i>-ity / -ty</i>	brutality, equality, cruelty
<i>-ment</i>	amazement, disappointment, parliament
<i>-ry</i>	entry, ministry, robbery
<i>-ship</i>	friendship, membership, workmanship
<i>-sion / -tion / -xion</i>	expression, population, complexion

Adjective Suffixes

Suffix	Examples Of Adjectives
<i>-able / -ible</i>	drinkable, portable, flexible
<i>-al</i>	brutal, formal, postal
<i>-en</i>	broken, golden, wooden
<i>-ese</i>	Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese

<i>-ful</i>	forgetful, helpful, useful
<i>-i</i>	Iraqi, Pakistani, Yemeni
<i>-ic</i>	classic, Islamic, poetic
<i>-ish</i>	British, childish, Spanish
<i>-ive</i>	active, passive, productive
<i>-ian</i>	Canadian, Malaysian, Peruvian
<i>-ly</i>	daily, monthly, yearly
<i>-ous</i>	cautious, famous, nervous
<i>-ular</i>	angular, circular, ovular, quadrangular, triangular
<i>-y</i>	cloudy, rainy, windy

Verb Suffixes

Suffix	Examples Of Verbs
<i>-ate</i>	complicate, dominate, initiate, irritate
<i>-en</i>	harden, soften, shorten
<i>-ify</i>	beautify, clarify, identify
<i>-ise / -ize</i>	economise, realise, industrialize (-ise is most common in British English; -ize is most common in American English)

Adverb Suffixes

Suffix	Examples Of Adverbs
<i>-ly</i>	calmly, easily, quickly
<i>-ward(s)</i>	downwards, homeward(s), upwards
<i>-wise</i>	anti-clockwise, clockwise, edgewise

Derivational Suffixes

In the example: “*The weather forecaster said it would be clear today, but I can’t see clearly at all*” the Suffix *-ly* modifies the root-word clear from an Adjective into an Adverb. Derivation can also form a word distinct in meaning within the same category of sentences. In this example: “*The weather forecaster said it would be a clear day today, but I think it’s more like clearish!*” the Suffix *-ish* modifies the root-word *clear*, changing its meaning to “*clear, but not very clear*”.

Some Derivational Suffixes In present-day English:

Suffix	Meaning, Origin, Usage	Examples
-able or -ible	From Latin via French –abilis, -ibilis An adjective suffix, now usually in a passive sense; it forms adjectives meaning: able to be, relevant or suitable to, in accordance with.	sensible, capable, edible, probable
-al	From the Latin adjective suffix -ālis via French, -el, -al meaning “of or pertaining to”; adjectival suffix appended to various words, often nouns, to make an adjective form. If the root word ends in l, the variant -ar is often used instead.	line - lineal base - basal cranium - cranial rival, proposal, denial linear
-fy	From Latin -ficare and –facere. Used to produce verbs meaning to make, usually with an intermediate -i-: -ify.	identify, verify

-ful	From Old German. Used to form adjectives from nouns meaning “full of”.	wonderful, handful harmful
-hood	From Old German. Meaning: A condition or state of being the thing or being in the role denoted by the word it is suffixed to, usually a noun.	childhood brotherhood neighbourhood
-ian	Latin. Meaning: Related or belonging to, from, like, Having a certain profession. Used to transform nouns to adjectives	Argentinian, Russian, Albanian, Romanian, Hanoverian
-ish	From Old German. Appended to adjectives meaning typical, similar to, somewhat. When appended to numbers, times and ages it means approximately.about, When appended to roots denoting names of nations or regions it means of a nationality, place, language or similar association with something.	Her face had a girlish charm. Her face had a greenish tinge. We arrived at tennish or We arrived tennish. (Sometime around ten.) I couldn't tell his precise age, but he was fiftyish. British, English, Irish, Scottish, Spanish etc.
-ism	From Ancient Greek -ismos via Latin -ismus. It forms abstract nouns of action, state, condition, doctrine; from a verb stem, which more specifically expressed a finished act or thing done.	criticism, socialism, magnetism, liberalism, atheism, opportunism, Americanism, racism, feminism.

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<i>-ise or -ize</i>	The suffix -ize has historically been used on words with Greek roots, and -ise on words with Latin-French roots. Today, -ize is usually the American and Canadian spelling, and -ise the British spelling. Used to form verbs from nouns or adjectives, particularly in the sense of "to make what is denoted by the noun or adjective".	characterise, socialise, criticise, modernise mobilise,
<i>-ist</i>	From Ancient Greek -istēs via Latin -ista and Old French -iste Added to words to form nouns denoting a person with a particular creative or academic role; one who owns or manages something; one who proscribes to a particular theological or political doctrine (these are related to -isms: capitalism; industrialism).	artist, one who makes art violinist, one who plays a violin. botanist, one who studies plants. Psychiatrist, one who practices psychiatry; capitalist; industrialist. Marxist, fascist, pacifist, activist, environmentalist, feminist
<i>-less</i>	From Old German meaning "Lacking (something)". Added to adjectives. Adjectives formed using -less can form nouns by the addition of -ness.	reckless recklessness
<i>-ly</i>	From Old German. Used to form adjectives from nouns, the adjectives having the sense of "like or characteristic of what is denoted by the noun".	friendly, lovely

<i>-ment</i>	From Latin -(a)mentum, from via Old French -ment. Used to form nouns from verbs, the nouns having the sense of "the action or result of what is denoted by the verb".	abridgement, acknowledgement, judgement, lodgement.
<i>-ness</i>	From Old German. Appended to adjectives to form nouns meaning "the state, quality or measure of (the adjective)",	calmness, darkness, kindness, oneness
<i>-ology</i>	From Ancient Greek -logia meaning "something which is said or explained". It forms names of sciences or departments of study, analogous to names of disciplines.	apology, biology, astrology, geology, genealogy, etymology
<i>-tion</i>	From the Latin suffix -tione. Used to form nouns meaning "the action of (a verb)" or "the result of (a verb)". Words ending in this suffix are almost always derived from a similar Latin word;	action (act), motion (move), deletion (delete), ignition (ignite), communication (communicate), junction (join) etc.

CONJUNCTIONS

A Conjunction is merely a connecting word. It has no other function in the sentence. In most languages of European origin, clauses are joined together by Conjunctions in similar ways. However, students who speak non-European-type languages often experience some problems in using English Conjunctions correctly.

Many students are taught that certain Conjunctions (such as *and*, *but*, *because*, and *so*) should not begin sentences. But such a teaching is totally unfounded as we native speakers constantly put them at beginning of a sentence. In the Bible, thousands of sentences begin with And or But, so, forget this "rule". It is only a misconception!

Our Conjunctions can perform different tasks. There are only a few rules you have to remember: **"One Conjunction is enough to join two clauses"** and **"A Conjunction can be between two clauses or at the beginning of two clauses"**. In the last case, you should put a comma between the two clauses: *He is poor but he is honest. Although he is poor, he is honest.* (NOT *Although he is poor, but he is honest.*) *I liked him so I tried to help him. Because I liked him, I tried to help him.* (NOT *Because I liked him, so I tried to help him.*)

Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating Conjunctions, also called "Coordinators", are Conjunctions that join, or coordinate, two or more items (such as words, main clauses, or sentences) of equal syntactic importance.

	Meaning	Use and Examples
and	also	to introduce something to another thing that is already mentioned. And represents non-contrasting item(s) or idea(s): <i>"They gamble and they smoke".</i>
but	however	to introduce something contrasting with what has been mentioned. But represents a contrast or exception: <i>"They gamble, but they don't smoke".</i>
or	alternative	to show choices. Or represents an alternative item or idea: <i>"Every day they gamble or they smoke".</i>
for	because, since	to show the reason for something. For represents reasons: <i>"They do not gamble or smoke, for they are ascetics".</i>
nor	not either	to show not one or the other. Nor represents a non-contrasting negative idea: <i>"They do not gamble, nor do they smoke".</i>
so	therefore	to link possibilities. So represents a consequence: <i>"He gambled well last night so he smoked a cigar to celebrate".</i>
yet	in spite of that	to add something that is contrasting or unexpected Yet represents a contrast or exception: <i>"They gamble, yet they don't smoke".</i>

In English, the acronym "**fanboys**" can help you to remember the coordinators *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, *so*. Here are some examples of these Conjunctions in English and what they do:

AND Of all the coordinating Conjunctions, "**and**" is the most common and the one where the use or otherwise of the comma is possibly most troublesome. The comma is needed if the *and* is used to connect two independent clauses: *Paul went to Kenya for his holiday, and Steve went to Dorset. Jim's mother washed the floor, and his dad just sat in front of the fire.*

If, however, it is used simply to connect two elements in the same clause or sentence, no comma is required: *Paul and Steve went to sunny Barrow in Furness on holiday this year. He likes listening to rap and classical music.*

BUT “*But*” requires a comma when acting as a coordinating Conjunction, connecting two independent clauses: *The weather was fine on Sunday, but we chose to stay in and watch TV. Jim’s wife was a fine cook, but her pastry always tasted like clay.*

When used to express contrast with the meaning of “except”, no comma is needed: Everybody but Jim got a new pencil. It seemed like cake was given to everyone but me.

OR Again, a comma is required when “or” is used to separate two independent clauses. *I can cook something special tonight, or Jim can zoom down to the fish and chip shop. Sharon can get you a ticket to the concert, or Suzie could take you to that new fish and chip shop.*

If it is used to separate two elements in the same sentence, no comma is needed. *You can have fish or chicken. Paul decided he was not that keen on Kenya or Dorset.*

Some comma rules: When Coordinating Conjunctions are used to connect two independent clauses together they should be accompanied by a comma, which comes before the coordinating conjunction. Some writers would argue that the comma itself is an adequate separation and would omit the comma in sentences where

the two clauses are short and balanced. If in any doubt, I would use a comma as doing so cannot be wrong in this situation.

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative Conjunctions work in *pairs to join* words and groups of words of equal weight in a sentence. There are six different pairs of Correlative Conjunctions: *either...or*, *not only...but (also)*; *neither...nor*, *both...and*, *whether...or*, *just as...so*. Examples:

	Meaning
either ... or	One or more things that are available as another possibility. You <i>either</i> do your work <i>or</i> prepare for a trip to the office.
neither ... nor	Putting two negative ideas together. <i>Neither</i> the basketball team <i>nor</i> the football team is doing well.
both ... and	Add something to another thing. <i>Both</i> the cross country team <i>and</i> the swimming team are doing well.
not ... but	Replacing something with something else.
not only ... (but) also	Adding something to another thing. <i>Not only</i> is he handsome, <i>but</i> he is <i>also</i> brilliant.
If ... then	Showing a result that is dependent on something else.
Whether ... or	Expressing a choice between alternatives <i>Whether</i> you stay <i>or</i> you go, it's your decision..
as ... so	<i>Just as</i> many Americans love basketball, <i>so</i> many Canadians love ice hockey.
as ... as	As in "as soon as possible".
the ... the	As in "the cheaper it is the more we can buy"
although ... yet	As in: "although he has not finished his work yet, I let him go"
so ... that	As in: "we have worked very cleverly so that we save time"

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating Conjunctions can join an independent clause and a dependent clause, and also introduce Adverb clauses. The most common subordinating Conjunctions in the English language include these ones:

after	even if	since	when
although	even though	so that	whenever
as	if	than	where
as if	if only	that	whereas
as long as	in order that	though	wherever
as though	now that	till	while
because	once	unless	
before	rather than	until	lest

Using one of these Conjunctions will make one of the two clauses in a sentence dependent on (or subordinate to) the other (main) clause. When we use it to separate two clauses (a main clause and a dependent or subordinate clause), no comma is needed: *The cyclist fell off her bike because the road was icy.* However, if the *dependent (or subordinate) clause* is put first in the sentence, it must be offset with a comma: *Because the road was icy, the cyclist fell off her bike.*

HOWEVER Here I take the chance to mention the word “*however*”. Two independent clauses can be connected by coordinating Conjunctions (with a comma) but cannot be connected by the word *however*. Using the word *however* to connect two independent clauses is a common mistake.

Examples: *Paul decided to go to Kenya, and Steve went to Dorset.* (Correct) *Paul decided to go to Kenya, but Steve went to Dorset.* (Correct) *Paul decided to go to Kenya, however Steve went to Dorset.* (Incorrect) The last example better should be made up into two separate sentences: *Paul decided to go to Kenya. Steve, however, went to Dorset.*

Different types of Subordinating Conjunctions:

Time	Place	Reason	Purpose	Contrast	Comparison
after	where	as	so	although	as
as	wherever	because		though	like
before		for		whereas	than
ever since		since		while	though
since				yet	
immediately					
once					
since					
till					
until					
when					
whenever					
whereupon					
while					
as soon as		in case	in order that	even though	as if
now that		as if	in order to		as though
			so that		
			lest		

Different types of Subordinating Conjunctions:

Condition	Choice	Exception	Degree	Preference	Consequence	Indirect Question
if		except			so	whether
providing	than	but			that	if
unless	whether					
provided that	rather than		as far as	rather than	so that	
seeing that				sooner than	such that	
as long as					in order that	
so long as						
even if						

Correct Use Of Some Difficult Conjunctions

As...as... , same ... as ... *As* is used in comparisons of equality. (Do not use than or that!): *My hands were **as** cold **as** ice. Your eyes are the **same** colour **as** mine.*

Than, as and that: *Than* is used after comparative Adjectives and Adverbs to express inequality. *As* and *that* are not used after Comparatives. *She is taller **than** me.* (NEVER *She is taller **as** me*, or, *She is taller **that** me*) *She has got a bigger house **than** I have.*

Unless: Unless means if not, so it will be superfluous to introduce another not into the following clause: *Unless you give the keys of the*

safe, you will be shot. OR *If you do not give the keys of the safe, you will be shot.* (NOT *Unless you do not give the keys of the safe, you will be shot.*)

Lest: is a subordinating Conjunction that takes a Subjunctive Verb. It means "so as to prevent any possibility that ...": *Keep down **lest** anyone see us!* It also means "in case", "in fear that", or "that... not". And therefore, we cannot use **not** in the following clause: *Take care **lest** you fall!* or *Take care **lest** you should fall!* (NOT: Take care lest you do not fall.). Note: **should** is the only Helper Verb that can be used after **lest**: *He was alarmed **lest** she should find out!* **Lest** is used after Verbs or phrases expressing fear, worry, anxiety, etc.: *Lest we forget!* (Seen on a war memorial. Here it means: *We should never forget!*)

Complementisers

Complementisers can be considered to be special subordinating Conjunctions that introduce complement clauses: e.g. *"I wonder **whether** he'll be late. I hope **that** he'll be on time"*. Some subordinating Conjunctions (until and while), when used to introduce a phrase instead of a full clause, become Prepositions with identical meanings.

The subordinating Conjunction performs two important functions within a sentence: illustrating the importance of the independent clause and providing a transition between two ideas in the same sentence by indicating a time, place, or cause and thus effecting the relationship between the clauses.

Conjunctions - Some Details

Conjunctions are linking words like **and**, **or**, **but**, **then** and **because**:

*They knocked down all the houses **and** they built a car park.*

*Are there four **or** five people living in that house?*

*My shoes look great **but** are not very comfortable.*

AND, BUT, EITHER ... OR, etc. (Coordinating Conjunctions)

Coordinating Conjunctions connect items which are the same grammatical type, e.g. words, phrases, clauses. The most common coordinating conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *but*.

One-word Conjunctions

Connecting words

*Which do you prefer? [word]Red **or** [word]blue?*

Connecting phrases

*The meal was [phrase]very expensive **and** [phrase]not very nice.*

Connecting clauses

*[clause]There are seats outside **but** [clause]some people don't like sitting outdoors.*

Connecting sentences

*My grandmother's name was Wall. **But** she became Jenkins when she got married to my grandfather.* (In very formal writing, we don't normally start a sentence with *but*.)

Connecting Prefixes

*[prefix]Pro- **and** [prefix]anti-government supporters waited outside the parliament.*

Two-word Conjunctions

Some coordinating conjunctions have two parts: *either ... or ...*, *neither ... nor ...*, *both ... and ...*:

*You can drink chocolate milk **either** hot in the winter **or** cold in the summer.*

***Neither** Lisa **nor** Helena had been to Italy before.* (Lisa hadn't been to Italy before and Helena hadn't been to Italy before.)

***Both** you **and** I know what really happened.* (You know and I know what happened.)

Warning:

Apart from two-word conjunctions, we only use one Conjunction to connect words or phrases:

***Because** my alarm didn't go off, I was late for work.*

Not: ~~Because my alarm didn't go off, so I was late for work.~~

AFTER, ALTHOUGH, AS SOON AS, etc.

(Subordinating Conjunctions)

Common Subordinating Conjunctions are: *after*, *(al)though*, *as*, *before*, *if*, *since*, *that*, *until*, *when*, *whereas*, *while*, *once*, *so*, *as soon as*, *provided that*. When a clause follows these Conjunctions, it becomes a subordinate clause, which needs a main clause to make a complete sentence.

One-word Conjunctions

[subordinate clause] **After** we had talked on the phone,

[main clause] I wrote down what we had decided.

[main clause] Everyone enjoyed the fishing trip

[subordinate clause] **although** no one caught any fish!

[subordinate clause] **Before** we left at four o'clock, [main clause] we had something to eat.

When the subordinate clause comes before the main clause, we usually put a comma at the end of the clause. When the main clause comes first, we don't need to use a comma.

Conjunctions with more than one word

Some subordinating conjunctions consist of more than one word: *as long as, as soon as, except that, in order that, so as to, provided that.*

As long as the waves are high enough, we can go surfing.

Provided that he pays a fine, he will not have to go to jail. (formal)

Conjunctions that can be modified by Adverbs

Some subordinating conjunctions may be modified by Adverbs (underlined). For example *just when, ever since, only if, just as, simply because, right before:*

The phone rang just **when** I'd gone to bed.

I have been afraid to swim in the sea ever **since** I was young.

Position of Subordinating Conjunctions

Words and phrases such as *above all, anyway, as a result, as well, eventually, firstly, however, overall, rather, then, therefore, though, on*

the contrary (linking adjuncts) can create similar meanings to conjunctions (e.g. adding, cause and effect). These words are Adverb phrases and can come in any position which an Adverb can occupy:

He left home late. (As a result) he (as a result) didn't arrive until 8 pm (as a result).

We cannot do this with Subordinating Conjunctions, which must come at the beginning of the clause. Subordinating Conjunctions create a grammatical connexion between two clauses, making one dependent on the other.

Compare

Subordinating Conjunctionso: <i>He couldn't get money from the bank so he couldn't buy a house.</i>	These two sentences mean the same thing but they are connected differently: So makes a subordinating link between the cause/reason (<i>He couldn't get money from the bank</i>) and the result (<i>he couldn't buy a house</i>). This is a grammatical link. The position of so cannot change.
Linking adjunct as a result. <i>He couldn't get money from the bank. As a result he couldn't buy a house.</i>	<i>As a result</i> creates a link between two clauses based on meaning. We can move <i>as a result</i> (<i>He couldn't get money from the bank. He couldn't buy a house as a result.</i>

AS, BECAUSE or SINCE?

As, because and since are Conjunctions. As, because and since all introduce subordinate clauses. They connect the result of something with its reason.

Result	Reason
<i>He decided to go to the conference in Barcelona,</i>	<i>as he was in Spain anyway.</i>
<i>Are you angry with me</i>	<i>because I opened the letter?</i>
<i>Bilardo coaches his team by telephone, (Bilardo was the coach of the Argentinian football team)</i>	<i>since half of them play in Italy, France or Spain.</i>

AS and SINCE

We often use as and since when we want to focus more on the result than the reason. As and since are more formal than because. We usually put a comma before since after the main clause:

*[result]I hope they've decided to come **as** [reason]I wanted to hear about their India trip.*

*[result]They're rather expensive, **since** [reason]they're quite hard to find.*

We often use as and since clauses at the beginning of the sentence. We use a comma after the as- or since- clause:

***Since** everything can be done from home with computers and telephones, there's no need to dress up for work any more.*

***As** everyone already knows each other, there's no need for introductions. We'll get straight into the business of the meeting.*

We use because, not as or since, in questions where the speaker proposes a reason:

*Are you feeling unwell **because** you ate too much?*

Not: ~~Are you feeling unwell since you ate too much?~~ or ... ~~as you ate too much?~~

BECAUSE

Because is more common than **as** and **since**, both in writing and speaking. When we use **because**, we are focusing on the reason:

*She spoke quietly **because** she did not want Catherine to hear.*

*We shall come over on Sunday **because** David has got to work on Saturday.*

We often put the because-clause at the beginning of a sentence, especially when we want to give extra focus to the reason. We use a comma after the because-clause:

***Because** breathing is something we do automatically, we rarely think about it.*

We can use a because-clause on its own without the main clause in speaking or informal writing:

A: *Would you like to go to school there?*

B: *Yes.*

A: *Why?*

B: ***Because** my best friend goes there. (I would like to go to school there because my best friend goes there.)*

Warning:

We don't use a because-clause on its own in formal writing:

*In 1998, the government introduced a new import tax **because** people were importing cars from abroad.*

Not: ... ~~a new import tax. Because people were importing cars from abroad.~~

BECAUSE, BECAUSE OF and COS, COS OF

BECAUSE: meaning and use

Because introduces clauses of cause and reason. It is a subordinating conjunction. This means that the clause it introduces is a subordinate clause, which needs a main clause to make it complete. We use a comma when the subordinate clause comes before the main clause:

*[main clause] Everyone left early **because** [subordinate clause] Mark and Helen had an argument.*

*[subordinate clause] **Because** they were so tired,*

[main clause] they went to bed at 9 pm.

Warning:

We don't use *for* or *why* instead of *because* when we are giving reasons: *I'm going to go to the company's head office on Monday **because** there is an emergency meeting there.*

Not: ... ~~to the company's head office on Monday for/why there is an emergency ...~~

BECAUSE OF

Because of is a two-word Preposition meaning 'as a result of':

***Because of** the rain, the tennis match was stopped.*

*There were so many people in the shop **because of** the sale.*

COS

Cos, a short form of *because*, is Pronounced /kəz/ or /kɒz/ and can also be spelt 'cause. It can be used instead of *because* (and *cos of* instead of *because of*). We often use it in speaking, emails and text messages, especially in informal situations:

A: Why are you and Adam not talking to each other?

B: **Cos** he's always saying nasty things about me.

*I'm laughing **cos** I'm so happy. I don't eat meat **cos** I love animals.*

*They cancelled the trip **cos of** the snow.*

JUST BECAUSE, SIMPLY BECAUSE

We can emphasise *because* with *just* or *simply*:

***Just because** you're the boss, it doesn't mean you can be rude to everyone.*

*I don't want to do it **simply because** I think it's wrong.*

While and whilst

WHILE or WHILST?

While and *whilst* mean the same when we use them as Conjunctions. They both mean 'during the time that something else happens', or 'in contrast with something else'. *While* is much more common than *whilst*, and *whilst* sounds more formal:

*Would you like something to eat **while** we're waiting? (less common: ... **whilst** we're waiting?) (during the time we're waiting)*

*British English prefers an 's' for words like realise, organise and industrialise, **while** American English prefers 'z' (realize, organize,*

industrialize). (less common: ... **whilst** American English prefers 'z' ...) (expressing a contrast between British and American English)

WHILE or WHEN?

While (or *whilst*) means 'during the time when something else happens'. *When* can mean the same as *while*, but *when* can also refer to a point in time.

Compare

during the time something happens	a point in time
<i>The phone rang while/when we were having dinner.</i>	<i>When the phone rang, she answered it immediately.</i> Not: While the phone rang ...

WHILE as a Noun

A *while* means 'an unspecified period of time':

*We spent **a while** looking at the boats in the harbour before going for lunch.*

*I haven't seen Andrew for **a while**. I wonder if he's okay.*

*It's **a long while** since anyone lived in that house – maybe ten years.*

It's a ruin now.

Typical error

- *While* does not mean the same as *when*:

*Always keep some change with you. It's useful **when** buying a bus ticket.* Not: ... ~~while buying a bus ticket.~~

***When** I came home, I made some dinner then watched TV.*

Not: ~~While I came home ...~~

WHEREAS

We use the Conjunction **whereas** to indicate a contrast between two facts or ideas:

*He loves foreign holidays, **whereas** his wife prefers to stay at home.*

***Whereas** most new PCs have several USB slots, older ones often only had one.*

Warning:

Whereas means the same as *while* in sentences expressing contrasts.

It does not mean the same as *while* when *while* refers to time:

*The south has a hot, dry climate, **whereas/while** the north has a milder, wetter climate.*

*The secretary took care of my appointments **while** I was away from the office.* Not: ... ~~whereas I was away from the office.~~

WHEN

When is a *wh*-word. We use *when* to ask questions, as a Conjunction and to introduce relative clauses.

WHEN as a question word

We can use *when* to ask for information about what time something happens:

***When** did you leave?*

***When** are you going on holiday?*

***When** will you know the result of the exam?*

We can use *when* in indirect questions:

*She asked me **when** I would be ready to start the job.*

*I wonder **when** the new computers will arrive.*

WHEN as a Conjunction

We use *when* as a Conjunction meaning 'at the time that'. The clause with *when* is a subordinate clause (sc) and needs a main clause (mc) to complete its meaning. If the *when*-clause comes before the main clause, we use a comma.

Talking about the Past

[SC]**When** I was young, [MC]there were no houses here.
[MC]Nobody spoke [SC]**when** she came into the room.

Talking about the Present

When you start the engine, there's a strange noise.

Talking about the Future

In references to the future with *when*, we use the present simple or the present perfect in the *when*-clause, not the future with *shall* and *will*:

When the new park **opens**, I'll go there every day.

Not: ~~When the new park will open, I'll go there every day.~~

When I've finished my homework, I'm going to phone Marita.

Not: ~~When I'll finish my homework, I'm going to phone Marita.~~

We can use *when* as a Conjunction to mean 'considering that':

What's the point in going out **when** we have to be home by eleven o'clock?

When as a Relative Pronoun

We can use *when* as a relative Pronoun in relative clauses:

That was the week **when** we booked our holiday.

The parcel arrived in the post at 11 am, **when** I was still at work.

SINCE WHEN?

We can use *since when* to ask at what time something began. We often use it as a response when we are surprised that something has begun:

A: Hilary's working at the Art Museum now.

B: Really? **Since when?**

A: Oh, she's been there about three months.

Warning:

Using *Since when* at the start of a question can express anger or sarcasm:

[talking about children watching television]

A: Maybe you should try not to let them watch so much television.

B: **Since when** are you an expert on childcare? (This is very direct.)

WHEN or IF?

We use *when* to refer to a future situation or condition that we are certain of, whereas we use *if* to introduce a possible or unreal situation.

Compare

When I see Gary, I'll tell him that you said hello.	I will definitely see Gary.
If I see Gary, I'll tell him that you said hello.	I may see Gary but I am not certain.

IF or WHEN?

We use *if* to introduce a possible or unreal situation or condition. We use *when* to refer to the time of a future situation or condition that we are certain of:

*You can only go in **if** you've got your ticket.*

When I'm older, I'd love to be a dancer.

Compare:

If Giles comes back to the office, can you tell him I've gone home.	The speaker does not know whether Giles is coming back to the office. It is possible, but not definite.
When Giles comes back to the office, can you tell him I've gone home.	The speaker is certain that Giles is coming back to the office.

To talk about situations and conditions that are repeated or predictable, we can use either *if* or *when* + present verb form:

*You can drive **if** you're 17.*

***If** you don't add enough wood, the fire goes out.*

When we go camping, we usually take two tents.

*She gets out of breath easily **when** she's jogging.*

Typical error

- We don't use **when** to introduce possible or unreal situations:

*Unfortunately, **if** you arrive too late, you are not allowed to take the exam because they don't accept late enrolment.*

Not: ... ~~when you arrive too late~~ ...

WHEN or SINCE?

We use *when* to mean '(at) the time that'. We use *since* to refer to a particular time in the past until another time or until now:

*I had a great time **when** I went to the coast.*

*I have been having a boring time **since** I came back home.*

Not: ~~I have been having a boring time when I came back home.~~

WHEN: typical errors

- Be careful not to use *when* instead of *if*.

***If** you arrive too late, you are not allowed to take the examination because they don't accept late enrolment.*

Not: ~~When you arrive too late, ...~~

- Be careful not to use *when* instead of *since*:

*I was very surprised to see him because it's been a long time **since** I last saw him.*

Not: ... ~~it's been a long time when I last saw him.~~

- We don't use *will* after *when* to mean 'at that time':

***When** I start college, I'll miss my old school friends.*

Not: ~~When I'll start college, I'll miss my old school friends.~~

SINCE

We use *since* as a preposition, a conjunction and an Adverb to refer to a time, and as a conjunction to introduce a reason.

SINCE: time

We use *since* to refer back to a previous point in time. We use *since* as a preposition with a date, a time or a Noun phrase:

*It was the band's first live performance **since** May 1990. (since + date)*

*I have been happily married for 26 years, **since** the age of 21. (since + Noun phrase)*

We also use *since* as a conjunction to introduce a subordinate clause:

*It's so long **since** I saw them. (since + clause)*

*Lenny had slept most of the way **since** leaving Texas. (since + clause)*

*He's been back to the office a few times **since** he retired. (since + clause)*

SINCE and tenses

When *since* introduces an action or event at a point of time in the past, we can use the past simple or present perfect after *since* and the present perfect in the main clause:

*They haven't received any junk mail **since** they moved house.*

*They haven't received any junk mail **since** they've moved house.*

We can use the past simple, present perfect or past perfect after *since* with the expression *it + be + time + since*:

***It's been years since** I rode a bike. (it's = it has)*

***It's been years since** I've ridden a bike. (it's = it has)*

***It's years since** I rode a bike. (it's = it is)*

***It's years since** I've ridden a bike. (it's = it is)*

***It'd been years since** I'd ridden a bike. (it'd = it had)*

*It's been years since ... is more common in American English than *It's years since**

When *since* introduces a state in the past that is still continuing in the present, we use a present perfect form of the verb after *since* and a present perfect form of the verb in the main clause:

***Since** I've been back at work, I've been feeling great.*

SINCE + -ing

We can use *since + -ing* form to refer to time when the Subject of the verb is the same in the main clause and the subordinate clause:

***Since leaving** school, he has had three or four temporary jobs. (Since he left school, he has ...)*

***Since moving** from a Chicago suburb to southern California a few months ago, I've learned how to play a new game called *Lanesmanship*. (Since I moved ..., I've learned ...)*

SINCE, SINCE THEN

We can use *since* or *since then* as an Adverb of time when the time reference is understood from the context:

*His father doesn't talk to him. They had an argument a couple of years ago and they haven't spoken **since**. (since they had the argument)*

*They bought the house in 2006 and they've done a lot of work on it **since then**. (since 2006)*

We use *ever since* as a stronger form of *since* or *since then*:

*When I was young, I had a little collie dog, but one day he bit me really badly. I've hated dogs **ever since**.*

SINCE: reason

We use *since* as a Subordinating Conjunction to introduce a subordinate clause. We use it to give a reason for something:

*Sean had no reason to take a taxi **since** his flat was near enough to walk to.*

***Since** her husband hated holidays so much, she decided to go on her own.*

*They couldn't deliver the parcel **since** no one was there to answer the door.*

SINCE: typical errors

- We don't use *since* with extended periods of time. We use *for*.
*She was waiting **for** four hours.*

Not: ~~She was waiting **since** four hours.~~

- We use *since*, not *from*, with a clause referring back to a point in time:

*I've been swimming **since** I was three years old.*

*I've been swimming **from** the age of three.*

Not: ~~I've been swimming from I was three years old.~~

- We use *since*, not *once*, to introduce a reason:

*I think I should have my money back **since** I didn't have what was promised in the brochure.*

Not: ~~I think I should have my money back once I didn't have ...~~

- We use *since*, not *ago*, after 'it's a long time' when we refer back to a point in time:

*It's a long time **since** your last letter.*

Not: ~~It's a long time ago your last letter.~~

FOR or SINCE?

We use *for* with a period of time in the past, present or future.

We use *since* with a point in time in the past.

Compare

<i>He lived in Oxford for 3 years and then he moved. (completed past)</i> <i>They've lived in Oxford for a couple of months. (began in the past and continues into the present)</i> <i>We're going to stay in Oxford for three days and then we're going to London for a day. (future plans)</i>	<i>For</i> refers to periods of time, e.g. 3 years, 4 hours, ages, a long time, months, years.
<i>They've lived in Oxford since 2012.</i>	<i>Since</i> refers to a previous point in time.

Warning:

We don't use *since* with periods of time:

*She's been on the phone **for** hours.* Not: ~~She's been on the phone **since** hours.~~

Position Of English Conjunctions

Relation	Across sentences, in the middle of a clause near the Verb	Within a sentence, at the beginning or the end of a clause
Addition and Replacement	also in addition furthermore moreover further besides	and, and also
	likewise in the same way similarly	nor or, or else
Contrast and Comparison	however on the other hand in contrast on the contrary instead	but whereas while
	nevertheless even so despite this still yet	yet even though although
	in the same way likewise similarly	(just) as while both...and neither...nor

Cause and Condition	for this reason therefore because of this	because since
	thus hence as a result	so so that in order that
	consequently that being so in that case otherwise	if ... (then) if (+ "not" + Verb)
Exemplification and Restatement	for instance to illustrate this for example in other words that is to put it another way to sum up in brief to clarify	-
Time and Place	then afterwards	when / once after
	previously up till now	before
	first second(ly) thirdly	where
	next finally at this/that point	here / there

ACTIVE VOICE

Simple Infinitive:

(not) (to) drive

The Simple Tenses:

drive (drives); do (not) / does (not) drive

drove; did (not) drive

will (not) drive

would (not) drive

Simple Continuous Infinitive:

(not) (to) be driving

The Simple Continuous Tenses:

am (not) / is (not) / are (not) driving

was (not) / were (not) driving

will (not) be driving

would (not) be driving

Perfect Infinitive:

(not) (to) have driven

The Perfect Tenses:

have (not) / has (not) driven

had (not) driven

will (not) be driven

would (not) be driven

Perfect Continuous Infinitive:

(not) (to) have been driving

The Perfect Continuous Tenses:

have (not) / has (not) been driving

had (not) been driving

will (not) have been driving

would (not) have been driving

VERBUM

that is

The Verb

and its complete pattern, including the correct position of “not”, shown by using the example “to drive”

PRINCIPAL PARTS:

drive (drives) - driving - drove - driven

ACTIVE VOICE:

Present Participle: driving

Past Participle: driven

Perfect Participle: having driven

Simple Gerund: (not) driving

Perfect Gerund: (not) having driven

Plain Imperative: drive !

Intensive Imperative: do (not) drive !

Subjunctive Present: (not) drive

Subjunctive Past: (not) drove

Subjunctive Future: should (not) drive

Adjectives: driving, driven, driveable.

Nouns: driving, drive, driveway, drive-in, drive-up, drive through, driver, drive-by, driveability, drive shaft, driving licence, driver's license, drivenness, driving range.

Phrasal Verbs: drive at; drive across, drive around, drive away, drive on(to), drive off, drive in(to), drive out, drive to, drive over, drive round, drive under; drive left, drive right.

Performance: **transitive** (requires objects) / **intransitive** (does not need objects)

PASSIVE VOICE:

Present Participle: being driven

Past Participle: been driven

Perfect Participle: having been driven

Simple Gerund: (not) being driven

Perfect Gerund: (not) having been driven

Plain Imperative: be driven !

Intensive Imperative: do (not) get / be driven !

Subjunctive Present: be (not) driven

Subjunctive Past: were (not) driven

Subjunctive Future: should (not) be driven

PASSIVE VOICE

Simple Infinitive:

(not) (to) be driven

The Simple Tenses:

am (not) / is (not) / are (not) driven

was (not) / were (not) driven

will (not) be driven

would (not) be driven

Simple Continuous Infinitive:

(not) (to) be being driven

The Simple Continuous Tenses:

am (not) / is (not) / are (not) being driven

was (not) / were (not) being driven

will (not) be being driven

would (not) be being driven

Perfect Infinitive:

(not) (to) have been driven

The Perfect Tenses:

have (not) / has (not) been driven

had (not) been driven

will (not) have been driven

would (not) have been driven

Perfect Continuous Infinitive:

(not) (to) have been being driven

The Perfect Continuous Tenses:

have (not) / has (not) been being driven

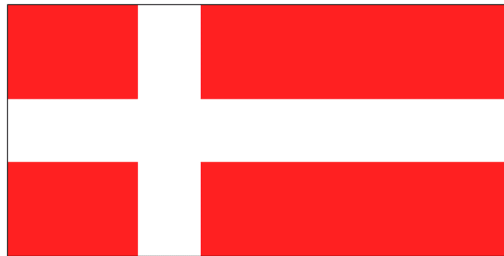
had (not) been being driven

will (not) have been being driven

would (not) have been being driven



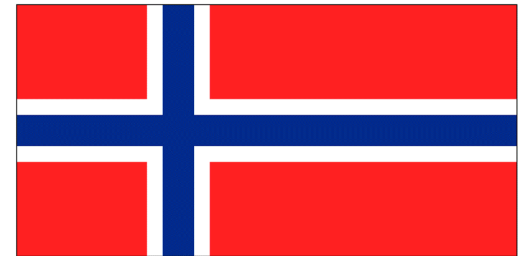
The Kingdom of Denmark



The Federal Republic of Germany



The Kingdom of Norway



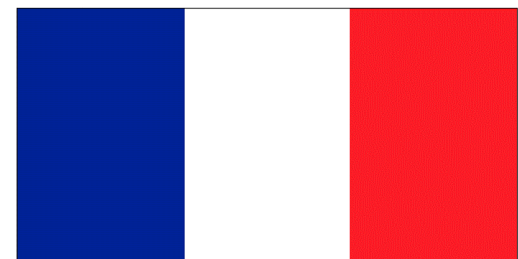
The Kingdom of the Netherlands



The Kingdom of Sweden



The French Republic



Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands are the lands where the first English speakers came from. Vikings from Norway, Denmark and Sweden changed English. Normans from France enriched its vocabulary.

FORMS AND ATTRIBUTES OF THE ENGLISH VERB

Verbs are one of the main word classes in the English language. Like other types of words in the language, English Verbs are not heavily inflected. Most combinations of **Aspect**, **Time**, **Mood** and **Voice** are expressed **periphrastically**, using constructions with Helper Verbs. As the English Verb carries a lot of information through its form and its combinations, it is vital that students learn ALL forms right from the start! And I will show you how. First, in this chapter we have got to talk about the forms of the English Verb and what they really mean.

Generally, the only inflected forms of an English Verb are: **1.)** the ending **-s** for the **3rd Person Singular** in the **Simple Present tense**, **2.)** the ending **-ed** (regular, and c. 200 irregular forms) for the **Simple Past tense** and the **Past Participle**, **3.)** the ending **-ing** for the **Present Participle** (that can serve as a Gerund, Noun or Adjective), **4.)** the **Past Participle** (that also can serve as a Noun or Adjective). The irregularity of Verbs, in nearly all cases, does concern the Simple Past tense and the Past Participle forms. The link Verb **to be** has a larger number of different inflected forms, and is highly irregular.

These are the things we are going to talk about:

1. The Inflected forms of Verbs
2. The Verbs in combination
3. The Aspects, Times and Moods:
 - 4 Aspects:** 1. Simple, 2. Simple Continuous, 3. Perfect, 4. Perfect Continuous
 - 4 Times:** 1. Present, 2. Past, 3. Future, 4. Future in the Past
 - 4 Moods:** 1. Indicative, 2. Subjunctive, 3. Imperative, 4. Conditional
4. The Active Voice and the Passive Voice
5. Negation and Questions
6. Modal Verbs
7. The Uses of these 32 Verb combination types:

In the Active Voice:	In the Passive Voice:
1. Simple Present 2. Simple Past 3. Simple Future 4. Simple Future in the Past	1. Simple Present 2. Simple Past 3. Simple Future 4. Simple Future in the Past
1. Simple Continuous Present 2. Simple Continuous Past 3. Simple Continuous Future 4. Simple Continuous Future in the Past	1. Simple Continuous Present 2. Simple Continuous Past 3. Simple Continuous Future 4. Simple Continuous Future in the Past
1. Perfect Present 2. Perfect Past 3. Perfect Future 4. Perfect Future in the Past	1. Perfect Present 2. Perfect Past 3. Perfect Future 4. Perfect Future in the Past
1. Perfect Continuous Present 2. Perfect Continuous Past 3. Perfect Continuous Future 4. Perfect Continuous Future in the Past	1. Perfect Continuous Present 2. Perfect Continuous Past 3. Perfect Continuous Future 4. Perfect Continuous Future in the Past

8. Have got and can see
9. **Been** and **Gone**
10. The Conditional sentences
11. Expressions of **Wish**
12. Indirect speech
13. Dependent clauses
14. The Uses of **nonfinite Verbs**
 1. The 8 Bare Infinitives
 2. The 8 to-Infinitives
 3. Perfect and Continuous nonfinite constructions
 4. Deverbal uses
 5. The 4 Gerunds
 6. Present Participle
 7. Past Participle

1. Inflected forms of Verbs

A typical English verb may have five different inflected forms:

- The base form or plain form (*go, write, climb*), which has several uses—as an **Infinitive**, **Imperative**, **Present Subjunctive**, and **Present Indicative** except in the 3rd-Person Singular
- The **-s form** (*goes, writes, climbs*), used as the **Present Indicative** in the **3rd-Person Singular**
- the **Past tense** (or **Preterite** or **Imperfect**) (*went, wrote, climbed*)
- The **Past Participle** (*gone, written, climbed*) – this is identical to the *Past tense* in the case of regular Verbs and some irregular Verbs (here the first two verbs are irregular and the third regular)
- The **-ing form** (*going, writing, climbing*), used as a Present Participle, Adjective, Gerund, and (de)verbal noun

The Verb **be** has a larger number of different forms (*am, art*, beest*, is, are, was, wert*, wast*, were, being, been*), while the Modal Verbs have a more limited number of forms. Some forms of **be** and of certain other Helper Verbs also have contracted forms ('s, 're, 've, etc.).

2. Verbs in Combination

In English, Verbs frequently appear in combinations containing one or more Helper Verbs and a nonfinite form (infinitive or participle) of a main (lexical) Verb. For example:

The dog **was barking** very loudly.

My hat **has been cleaned**.

Jane **does** not really **like** us.

The first Verb in such a combination is the *finite Verb*, the remainder are nonfinite (although constructions in which even the leading Verb is nonfinite are also possible. Such combinations are sometimes called Compound Verbs. As the last example shows, the words making up these combinations do not always remain consecutive.

3. Tenses, Aspects and Moods

As in many other languages, the means English uses for expressing the three categories of *Tense* (time reference), *Aspect* and *Mood* are somewhat conflated. In contrast to languages like Latin or German, though, English has only limited means for expressing these categories through Verb conjugation, and tends mostly to express them *periphrastically*, using the Verb combinations mentioned in the previous section. The tenses, aspects and moods that may be identified in English

are described below (although the terminology used differs significantly between authors).

Note that in common usage, particularly in English language teaching, most **tense-aspect-mood** combinations such as "Simple Continuous Present" and "Perfect Conditional" are just referred to as "tenses". Let us take a closer look in order to figure out what the whole thing is about:

THE 4 TIMES

1.) The Present tense

Present tense is used, in principle, to refer to circumstances that exist at the present time (or over a period that includes the present time). However the same forms are quite often also used to refer to future circumstances, as in "He's coming tomorrow". For certain grammatical contexts where the Present tense is the standard way to refer to the future. It is also possible for the *Present tense* to be used when referring to no particular real time (as when telling a story), or when recounting past events. The Present Perfect *intrinsically* refers to past events, although it can be considered to denote primarily the resulting present situation rather than the events themselves.

The Present tense has two *Moods*, **Indicative** and **Subjunctive**; when no Mood is specified, it is often the Indicative that is meant. In a Present Indicative construction, the finite Verb appears in its base form, or in its **-s form** if its *Subject* is 3rd-Person Singular. (The Verb **be** has the forms **am, is, are**, while the Modal Verbs do not add **-s** for the third-Person Singular.)

2.) The Past tense

Past tense forms express circumstances existing at some time in the past, although they also have certain uses in referring to hypothetical situations (as in some conditional sentences, dependent clauses and expressions of wish). They are formed using the finite Verb in its Simple Past form.

Certain uses of the Past tense may be referred to as Subjunctives; however the only distinction in verb conjugation between the Past Indicative form and Past Subjunctive form is the possible use of **were** in the Subjunctive in place of **was**.

Note that for expressing the English "Past" we can use a *periphrastic* (constructed) form involving the Helper Verb **did**

Note also that in certain contexts past events are expressed by the Perfect Present tense.

3.) The Future tense

Future tense. English has only two genuine tenses expressed by Verb inflection: Present and Past. For expressing the English "Future" we have to use a *periphrastic (constructed) form* involving the Modal Verb **will** (sometimes **shall** when used with a 1st-Person Subject; and to some extent even **can**, **may** and **must**). There also exist other ways of referring to future circumstances, including the **going to** construction, the and the use of the Simple Continuous Present tense.

4.) Future tense in the Past

Future tense in the Past. As the English Verb is "based on 2", we have a second future form which we call "Future in the Past". For expressing the *English Future in the Past* we have to use a *periphrastic (constructed) form* involving the Modal Verb **would** (sometimes **should** when used with a 1st-Person Subject; and to some extent even **could**, **might** and **ought to**).

This form has a *Future in the Past* meaning in sentences such as *She knew that she would win the game*. Here the sentence as a whole refers to some particular past time, but **would win** refers to a time in the future relative to that past time.

This form represents also the **Conditional Mood** (or Mode), and we use it particularly in **polite requests** or inquiries.

THE 4 ASPECTS

1.) The Simple Aspect

The word "Simple" is NOT an empty word here but a proper Aspect that refers to Verbs constructions (*I go, I do not go, I went, I will go*, etc.). They never belong to the Perfect Aspect. Simple constructions normally refer to facts or a single action, as in *Brutus killed Caesar*, a repeated action (habitual aspect), as in *I go to school*, or a relatively permanent state, as in *We live in Sydney*. They may also denote a temporary state, and are used for **Stative Verbs** that do not use Continuous forms.

2.) The Simple Continuous Aspect

We use the **Simple Continuous** or Simple Progressive Aspect to talk about a temporary action or state that began at a previous time and continues into the present time (or an other time which we mention). It is expressed using a form of the

Helper Verb **to be** (conjugated appropriately for tense etc.) together with the Present Participle (-ing form) of the main Verb: *I am reading; Were you shouting?; He will be sitting over there*.

Certain **Stative Verbs** make limited use of the Continuous aspect. Their non-continuous forms (in non-continuous Simple or Perfect constructions) are used in many situations even when expressing a temporary state. The main types are described below.

- The link verb **to be** does not normally use Continuous forms (*I am happy*, not **I am being happy*). However its Continuous aspect is used in appropriate situations when the Verb expresses the **Passive Voice** (*We are being followed*), and when it has the meaning of "behave" or "act as" (*You are being very naughty; He is being a nuisance*).
- The Verb **to have** does not use Continuous forms when it expresses possession, broadly understood (*I have a brother*, not *I am having a brother*), but it does use them in its active meanings (*I am having a party; She is having a baby; He was having a problem starting his car*). Other Verbs expressing a state of possession or similar, such as *possess, own, belong* and *owe*, also do not normally use Continuous forms.
- Verbs of mental state, sense perception and similar (*know, believe, want, think, see, hear, need*, etc.) are generally used without Continuous aspect, although some of them can be used in the Continuous to imply an ongoing, often temporary situation (*I am feeling lonely*), or an activity (*I am thinking about a problem*).
- Verbs denoting positional state normally do use the Continuous if the state is temporary: *He is standing in the corner*. (Compare permanent state: *London stands on the banks of the Thames*.)

3.) The Perfect Aspect

The Perfect aspect is used to denote the circumstance of an action's being complete at a certain time. It is expressed using a form of the auxiliary verb **have** (appropriately conjugated for tense etc.) together with the **Past Participle** of the main Verb: *She has eaten it; We had left; When will you have finished?*

Perfect forms can also be used to refer to states or habitual actions, even if not complete, if the focus is on the time period before the point of reference (*We had lived there for five years*). If such a circumstance is temporary, the perfect is often combined with Continuous aspect (see the following section).

The implications of the Perfect Present (that something occurred prior to the present moment) are similar to those of the Simple Past, although the two forms are generally not used interchangeably – the Simple Past is used when the time frame of reference is in the past, while the Perfect Present is used when it extends to the present. For details, see the relevant sections below.

By using nonfinite forms of the Helper Verb *have*, the Perfect aspect can also be marked on Infinitives (as in *should **have left*** and *expect **to have finished** working*), and on Participles and Gerunds (as in ***having seen** the doctor*).

Note that while all of the constructions referred to here are commonly referred to as Perfect (based on their grammatical form), some of them, particularly nonpresent and nonfinite instances, might not be considered truly expressive of the Perfect aspect. This applies particularly when the perfect infinitive is used together with Modal Verbs: for example, *he could not have been a genius* might be considered (based on its meaning) to be a past tense of *he cannot / could not be a genius*; such forms are considered true perfect forms by some linguists but not others.

4.) The Perfect Continuous Aspect

The Perfect and Continuous Aspects can be combined, usually in referring to the completed portion of a continuing action or temporary state: *I **have been working** for eight hours*. Here a form of the Verb *have* (denoting the Perfect) is used together with *been* (the past participle of *be*, denoting the Continuous) and the Present Participle of the main Verb.

In the case of the Stative Verbs, which do not use the Continuous Aspect, the plain Perfect form is normally used in place of the Perfect Continuous: *I have been here for half an hour* (not *I have been being here...*).

THE 4 MOODS (or Modes)

1.) The Indicative Mood

Indicative Mood, in English, refers to Finite Verb forms that are not marked as Subjunctive and are not Imperatives or Conditionals. They are the Verbs typically found in the main clauses of declarative sentences and questions formed from them, as well as in most dependent clauses (except for those that use the Subjunctive). The information that a form is Indicative is often omitted when referring to it: the

Simple Present Indicative is usually referred to as just the Simple Present, etc. (Note: With the exception of **be** and **were**, as well as the missing **-s** in the Simple Present tense of the 3rd Person Singular, the Subjunctive looks like the Indicative!).

2.) The Subjunctive Mood

Certain types of clause, mostly dependent clauses, use a Verb form identified with the Subjunctive Mood. The Present Subjunctive takes a form identical to the bare Infinitive, as in *It is necessary that he **be** restrained*. There is also a Past Subjunctive, distinct from the indicative only in the possible use of *were* in place of *was* in certain situations: *If I **were** you, ...*

3.) The Imperative Mood

The bare Imperative is just the same as the dictionary form of a Verb:

Eat! Sit! Go! Come! Take! Give!

We can be a bit more precise by putting direction words after the Imperative:

Eat up! Sit down! Go away! Come in! Take it! Give it to me!

We can say the opposite or negative by using the "do not" before the Imperative:

Do not eat! Do not sit! Do not go! Do not come! Do not eat up! Do not sit down! Do not go away! Do not come in!

Another, quite harsh form can be formed with "no" followed by a *Gerund*:

No smoking! No swimming! or with a *Gerund* followed by a *Past Participle*:
Smoking forbidden! Swimming forbidden or **Smoking prohibited! Swimming prohibited!**

When forming the Imperative Mood we usually do not need a Subject, but the Subject "you" can be added for emphasis. We can soften the Imperative with the word "please" or "if you please". Example:

Now you eat your dinner! You go and stand over there, if you please! Do not ever you dare to say that word again! You get ready, please!

Imperatives in the **1st Person** can be formed with **let us** (usually shortened to **let's**), as in "Let's go" or "Let me in, please!". We even can use the **3rd Person**, as in "Let him be released". The form with **let** is considered very friendly and diplomatic.

4.) The Conditional Mood

In English, the forms of the **Conditional** and the **Future tense in the Past** are identical. For expressing the *Conditional* we have to use a *periphrastic* (constructed) form involving the Modal Verb **would** (sometimes **should** when used with a 1st-Person Subject; and to some extent even **could**, **might** and **ought to**).

THE 2 VOICES

Active Voice and Passive Voice

The uses, meanings, and the amount of tense–aspect–mood combinations of the Passive forms are identical to those in the Active Voice. The Active Voice (where the Verb's Subject is the doer, or agent, of the mentioned action) has no special form in English. But the Passive Voice (where the subject denotes the undergoer, or patient, of the action), has a special form which is a *periphrastic* construction with the Helper Verb **be** (or sometimes **get**), together with the Past Participle of the lexical Verb.

The Passive Voice can be expressed in combination together with Tenses, Aspects and Moods, by means of appropriate marking of the Auxiliary (which for this purpose is not a stative Verb, i.e. it has Continuous forms available). For example:

This room **is tidied** regularly. (Simple Present Passive)

It **had** already **been accepted**. (Perfect Past Passive)

Dinner **is being cooked** right now. (Simple Present Continuous Passive)

Attention:

Six of the eight Passive Continuous forms are quite rare: the **Simple Continuous Future** (*it will be being written*), **Simple Continuous Future in the Past** (*it would be being written*); the **Perfect Continuous Present** (*it has been being written*), **Perfect Continuous Past** (*it had been being written*), **Perfect Continuous Future** (*it will have been being written*), and **Perfect Continuous Future in the Past** (*it would have been being written*). **Mind: Even when some forms are rarely used, they can appear. Therefore, all 32 English Verb tenses and combinations MUST be learnt!** Because of the awkwardness of these constructions, they may be paraphrased, by using the (more comprehensible but not shorter) expression "**in the process of**" + *Gerund* or "**in the process of being cleaned**" (Example: "*the window will be / would be / has been / had been / will have been / would have been / in the process of cleaning*", instead of "*the window will be being cleaned*" etc.).

Negation and Questions

Negation of Verbs usually takes place with the addition of the particle *not* (or its shortened form *n't*) to a Helper Verb or Copular Verb, with **do**-support being used if there is otherwise no Helper Verb. However, if a sentence already contains a negative word (*never, nothing*, etc.), then there is not usually any additional *not*.

Questions (interrogative constructions) are generally formed using subject–auxiliary (Helper Verb) inversion, again using **do**-support if there is otherwise no Helper Verb. In negative questions, it is possible to invert with just the Modal Verb (*should we not help?*) or with the contracted negation (*shouldn't we help?*).

Modal Verbs

English has the Modal Verbs **will, shall, can, may, must, would, should, could, might**, and also (depending on classification adopted) **ought (to), dare, need, had (better), used (to)**. These do not add **-s** for the third-person singular, and they do not form infinitives or participles; the only inflection they undergo is that to a certain extent *could, might, should* and *would* function as past tenses of *can, may, shall* and *will* respectively.

A Modal Verb can serve as the finite Verb introducing an entire array of Verb combinations, as in *he might have been injured then*. These forms generally express modality (possibility, obligation, etc.), although *will* and *would* (and sometimes *shall* and *should*) can serve – among their other uses – to express future time reference and Conditional Mood, as described elsewhere in this book.

USES OF VERB COMBINATION TYPES

(Remember: A "verb tense" is always a combination of ASPECT AND TIME!)

A.) THE 4 SIMPLE TENSES:

1.) Simple Present tense

The *Simple Present tense* is a form that combines Present tense with "Simple" (neither perfect nor progressive) Aspect. In the Indicative Mood it consists of the base form of the Verb, or the **-s** form when the subject is 3rd-person singular (the verb **be** uses the forms *am, is, are*). However, without any Helper Verb, it also has a *periphrastic* form consisting of **do** (or third-person singular *does*) with the bare infinitive of the main Verb — this form is used in questions (and other clauses requiring inversion) and negations, and sometimes for emphasis.

We use the Simple Present tense:

- To refer to an action or event that takes place habitually. Such uses are often accompanied by Frequency Adverbs and adverbial phrases such as **always**, **often**, **sometimes**, **seldom** and **never**. Examples:
He **writes** for a living.
I **always take** a shower in the evening.
This contrasts with the Present Continuous, which is used for actions taking place at the present moment.
- With Stative Verbs in senses that do not use Continuous aspect, to refer to a present or general state, whether temporary, permanent or habitual. (In senses that do use progressive aspect, the Simple Present is used when the state is permanent or habitual.)
You **are** happy.
I **know** what to do.
Denmark **lies** to the north of Germany.
- When quoting someone or something, even if the words were spoken in the (usually very recent) past:
The label **says** "External use only".
Mary **says**, she is ready.
- To refer to a single completed action, as in recounting the events of a story in the present tense, and in such contexts as newspaper headlines, where it replaces the Perfect Present:
In *Hamlet*, Ophelia **drowns** in a stream.
40-year-old **wins** gold medal.
- Sometimes to refer to an arranged future event, usually with a reference to time:
We **leave** for Chicago tomorrow at 1 pm.
- In providing a commentary on events as they occur, or in describing some theoretical sequence of events:
I **chop** the onions and **add** them to the mixture.
According to the manager's new idea, I **welcome** the guests and you **give** the presentation.
- In many dependent clauses referring to the future, particularly condition clauses, clauses expressing place and time, and many relative clauses:
If he **finds** your sweets, he will eat them.
We will report as soon as we **receive** any information.
- In certain situations in a temporal adverbial clause, rather than the present Continuous: We **cook** lunch before noon.

2.) Simple Past tense

The *Simple Past tense* consists of the bare past tense of the Verb (ending in **-ed** for regular Verbs, and formed in various ways for irregular Verbs. In most questions (and other situations requiring inversion), when negated, in certain emphatic statements, and as a round-about expression to avoid irregular Verb forms, a *periphrastic* construction consisting of **did** and the bare infinitive of the main Verb is generally used instead.

The *Simple Past tense* is used for a single event in the past, for past habitual action, or for a past state:

He **took** the money and **ran**.

I **visited** them every day for a year.

I **knew** how to fight even as a child.

However, for action that was ongoing at the time referred to, the *Simple Continuous Past* is generally used instead.

The *Simple Past tense* is often close in meaning to the *Perfect Present tense*. The *Simple Past tense* is used when the event is conceived as occurring at a particular time in the past, or during a period that ended in the past (that means, it does not last up until the present time). This time frame may be explicitly stated, or implicit in the context (for example the *Simple Past tense* is often used when describing a *sequence* of past events).

I **was** born in 1980.

We **turned** the oven off two minutes ago.

She **placed** the letter on the table, **sighed**, and **left** the house.

Various compound constructions exist for denoting past habitual action. The sentence *When I was young, I played football every Saturday* might alternatively be phrased using **used to** (... *I used to play* ...) or using **would** (... *I would play*...).

The *Simple Past tense* is also used without past reference in some cases: in condition clauses and some other dependent clauses referring to hypothetical circumstances, and after certain expressions of wish.

3.) Simple Future tense

The term *Simple Future tense* refers to the combination of the Modal Verb **will** with the bare infinitive of the main Verb. Sometimes (particularly in more formal English) **shall** is preferred to **will** when the Subject is 1st Person (*I* or *we*). *Will* and *shall* are often contracted to **'ll** in speaking, but **not in writing!**

This construction can be used to indicate what the speaker views as facts about the future, including confident predictions:

The sun **will rise** tomorrow at 6.14.

It **will rain** later this week.

It may be used to describe future circumstances that are subject to some condition:

He **will go** there if he can.

However English also has other ways of referring to future circumstances. For planned or scheduled actions, the Simple Present tense or the Simple Present Continuous tense may be used (see those sections for examples). There is also a **going-to** Future, common in colloquial English, which is often used to express intentions or predictions (*I am going to write a book some day; I think that it is going to rain*). Use of the **will / shall** construction when expressing intention often indicates a spontaneous decision:

Look! I'll **use** this book as a door stop.

Compare *I am going to use...*, which implies that the intention to do so has existed for some time.

The Simple Present tense may be preferred, rather than Future constructions in condition clauses and certain other dependent clauses. The Modal Verbs **will** and **shall** also have other uses besides indicating future time reference. For example:

I **will pass** this exam. (often expresses determination in addition to futurity)

You **will obey** me! (insistence)

I **will not do** it! (negative insistence, refusal)

At this moment I **will tolerate** no dissent. (strong volition)

He hasn't eaten all day; he **will be** hungry now. (confident speculation about the present)

One of his faults is that he **will make** trouble unnecessarily. (habit)

Shall we **get** to work? (suggestion)

4.) Simple Future tense in the Past (Simple Conditional)

The *Simple Future tense in the Past* or *Simple Conditional tense*, which is often and wrongly called "*Present Conditional*" (wrong because it is no Present tense at all!), is formed by combining the Modal Verb **would** with the bare infinitive of the main Verb. Sometimes (particularly in formal English) **should** is used in place of **would** when the Subject is 1st Person (*I* or *we*), in the same way that **shall** may replace **will** in such instances. *Would* and *should* are often shortened to '**d**' in speaking, but **not in writing!**

The *Simple Conditional tense* is used principally in a main clause accompanied by an implicit or explicit condition (*if*-clause). (This is described in more detail in the article on English conditional sentences. The time referred to may be (hypothetical) present or future. For example:

I **would go** tomorrow (if she asked me).

If I were you, I **would see** a doctor.

If she had bought those shares, she **would be** rich now.

In some varieties of English, **would** (or '**d**') is also regularly used in the *if*-clauses themselves (*If **you'd leave** now, you'd be on time*), but this is often considered nonstandard. This is widespread especially in spoken American English in all registers, though not usually in more formal writing. There are also situations where *would* is used in *if*-clauses in British English too, but these can usually be interpreted as a modal use of *would* (e.g. *If you **would listen** to me once in a while, you might learn something*).

The Modal Verbs **could** and **might** can also be used to indicate the conditional mood, as in the following:

If the opportunity were here, I **could do** the job. (= ... I would be able to do ...)

If the opportunity were here, I **might do** the job. (= ... maybe I would do ...)

Forms with *would* may also have "future-in-the-past" meaning:

We moved into the cottage in 1958. We **would live** there for the next forty years.

B.) THE 4 SIMPLE CONTINUOUS TENSES

1.) Simple Continuous Present tense

The *Simple Continuous Present* form combines the Simple Present tense with Continuous Aspect. It thus refers to an action or event conceived of as having limited duration, taking place at the present time. It consists of a form of the simple present of **to be** together with the Present Participle of the main Verb and the ending -ing.

We **are cooking** dinner now.

This often contrasts with the *Simple Present tense*, which expresses repeated or habitual action (*We **cook** dinner every day*). However, sometimes the *Continuous Present tense* is used with *always*, generally to express annoyance about a habitual action:

You **are always making** a mess in the study!

Certain Stative Verbs do not use the Continuous aspect, so the *Simple Present tense* is used instead in those cases.

The Present Continuous tense can be used to refer to a planned future event:

We **are tidying** the attic tomorrow.

It also appears with future reference in many condition and time clauses and other dependent clauses:

If he's **sleeping** when you arrive, wake him up.

I will finish the job while the children **are playing**.

It can also refer to something taking place not necessarily at the time of speaking, but at the time currently under consideration, in the case of a story or narrative being told in the Simple Present tense (as mentioned above under simple present):

The king and queen **are conversing** when Hamlet enters.

2.) Simple Continuous Past tense

The *Simple Continuous Past tense* or *Progressive Past* constructions combine Continuous aspect with the *Simple Past tense*, and is formed using the Past tense of **to be** (*was* or *were*) with the Present Participle of the main Verb. It indicates an action that was ongoing at the past time being considered:

At three o'clock yesterday, I **was working** in the garden.

For Stative Verbs that do not use the Continuous aspect, the Simple Past tense is used instead (*At three o'clock yesterday we **were** in the garden*).

The *Simple Continuous Past tense* is often used to denote an action that was interrupted by an event, or for two actions taking place in parallel:

While I **was washing** the dishes, I heard a loud noise.

While you **were washing** the dishes, Sue **was walking** the dog.

(Interrupted actions in the past can also sometimes be denoted using the *Perfect Past Continuous tense*, as described below.)

The *Simple Continuous Past tense* can also be used to refer to a past action that occurred over a range of time and is viewed as an ongoing situation:

I **was working** in the garden all day yesterday.

That could also be expressed using the *Simple Past tense*, as *I worked...*, which implies that the action is viewed as a unitary event (although the effective meaning is not very different).

The *Simple Continuous Past tense* shares certain special uses with other Past tense constructions.

3.) Simple Continuous Future tense

The *Simple Continuous Future tense* combines Simple Continuous Aspect with future time reference; it is formed with the auxiliary **will** (or *shall* in the first person; plus the bare infinitive **be**, and the present participle of the main Verb. It is used mainly to indicate that an event will be in progress at a particular point in the future:

This time tomorrow I **will be taking** my driving test.

I imagine we **will already be eating** when you arrive.

The usual restrictions apply, on the use both of the Future and of the Continuous: Simple rather than Simple Continuous aspect is used with some Stative verbs, and Present rather than Future constructions are used in many dependent clauses.

The same construction may occur when **will** or **shall** is given one of its other uses, for example:

He **will be sitting** in his study at this time. (confident speculation about the present)

4.) Simple Continuous Future in the Past tense (Simple Continuous Conditional)

The *Simple Continuous Future in the Past tense* (or *Simple Continuous Conditional*) combines Simple Continuous Aspect with Conditional Mood. It combines **would** (or the contraction **'d**, or sometimes *should* in the first person) with the bare infinitive **be** and the Present Participle of the main Verb. It has similar uses to those of the Simple Conditional, but is used for ongoing actions or situations (usually hypothetical):

Today she **would be exercising** if it were not for her injury.

He **wouldn't be working** today if he had been given the time off.

It can also have future-in-the-past meanings:

We didn't know then that we **would be waiting** another three hours.

C.) THE 4 PERFECT TENSES

1.) Perfect Present tense

The *Perfect Present tense* (traditionally just called the *Perfect*) combines Perfect Aspect with *Present tense*, denoting the present state of an action is being completed, that is, that the action took place before the present time. (It is thus often close in meaning to the Simple Past tense, although the two are not usually interchangeable.) It is formed with the Present tense of the Helper Verb **have** (namely *have* or *has*) and the Past Participle of the main Verb.

The choice of *Perfect Present* or *Simple Past* tense depends on the frame of reference (period or point in time) in which the event is conceived as occurring. If the frame of reference extends to the present time, the present perfect is used. For example:

I **have written** a letter this morning. (if it is still the morning)

He **has produced** ten plays. (if he is still alive and professionally active)

They **have never travelled** abroad. (if they are still alive and considered capable of traveling)

If the frame of reference is a time in the past, or a period that ended in the past, the *Simple Past* tense is used instead. For example: *I wrote a letter this morning* (it is now afternoon); *He produced ten plays* (he is now dead or his career is considered over, or a particular past time period is being referred to); *They never travelled abroad* (similarly). The *Simple Past* tense is generally used when the occurrence has a specific past time frame – either explicitly stated (*I wrote a book in 1995*; *the water boiled a minute ago*), or implied by the context (for example, in the narration of a sequence of events). It is therefore normally incorrect to write a sentence like *I have written a novel yesterday*; the *Perfect Present* should not be used with an expression of past time such as *yesterday*, we better use *already* or *yet*.

With *already* or *yet*, traditional usage calls for the *Perfect Present* tense: *Have you eaten yet? Yes, I have already eaten*. However, current informal American speech tends to use the *Simple Past* tense: *Did you eat yet? Yes, I ate already*.

The use of the *Perfect Present* tense often draws attention to the present consequences of the past action or event, as opposed to its actual occurrence. The sentence *she has come* probably means she is here now, while the simple past *she came* does not. The sentence, "Have you been to the fair?" suggests that the fair is still going on, while the sentence, "Did you go to the fair?" could mean that the fair is over. Some more examples:

I **have eaten**. (implies that I'm no longer hungry)

We **have made** the dinner. (implies that the dinner is now ready to eat)

The weather **has got** cloudier. (implies that it is now more cloudy than previously)

It may also refer to an ongoing state or habitual action, particularly in saying *for how long*, or *since when*, something is the case. For example,

I **have lived** in Paris for five years.

He **has held** the record since he won his Olympic gold.

We **have eaten** breakfast together every morning since our honeymoon.

This implies that I still live in Paris, that he still holds the record and that we still eat together every morning (although the first sentence may also refer to some unspecified past period of five years). When the circumstance is temporary, the perfect present Continuous is often appropriate in such sentences (see below); however, if the verb is one that does not use the Continuous aspect, the basic present perfect is used in that case too: Alice **has been** on the swing for ten minutes.

The *Perfect Present* tense may refer to a habitual circumstance, or a circumstance being part of a theoretical or story narrative being given in the *Simple Present* tense (provided the circumstance is of an event's having taken place previously):

Whenever I get home, John **has** usually already **arrived**.

According to the plan, the speeches **have** already **been** given when the cake is brought out.

The *Perfect Present* tense may also be used with future reference, instead of the perfect future tense, in those dependent clauses where future occurrence is denoted by the *Simple Present* tense. For example:

When you **have written** it, show it to me.

2.) Perfect Past tense

The *Perfect Past* tense (sometimes called the *Pluperfect*) combines Perfect Aspect with Past tense; it is formed by combining **had** (the Past tense of the Auxiliary **have**) with the Past Participle of the main Verb. It is used when referring to an event that took place prior to the time frame being considered. This time frame may be stated explicitly, as a stated time or the time of another past action:

We **had finished** the job by 2 o'clock.

He **had** already **left** when we arrived.

The time frame may also be understood implicitly from the previous or later context:

I was eating ... I **had invited** Jim to the meal but he was unable to attend. (i.e. I invited him before I started eating)

I **had lost** my way. (i.e. this happened prior to the time of the past events I am describing or am about to describe)

Compare *He **had left** when we arrived* (where his leaving preceded our arrival), with the form with the *Simple Past* tense, *He **left** when we arrived* (where his leaving was concurrent with or shortly after our arrival).

Note that unlike the *Perfect Present tense*, the *Perfect Past tense* can readily be used with an Adverb specifying a past time frame for the occurrence. For example, while it is incorrect to say **I have done it last Friday* (the use of *last Friday*, specifying the past time, would require the simple past tense rather than the *Perfect Present tense*), there is no such objection to a sentence like "I had done it the previous Friday".

The *Perfect Past tense* can also be used for states or repeated occurrences pertaining over a period up to a time in the past, particularly in stating "for how long" or since when". However, if the state is temporary and the Verb can be used in the Continuous aspect, the Perfect Continuous Past would normally be used instead. Some examples with the plain past perfect:

I **had lived** in that house for 10 years.

The children **had been** in their room since lunchtime.

3.) *Perfect Future tense*

The *Perfect Future tense* combines the Perfect Aspect with future time reference. It consists of the Modal Verb **will** (or sometimes *shall* in the first person, as above), the bare infinitive **have**, and the Past Participle of the main Verb. It indicates an action that is to be completed sometime prior to a future time of perspective, or an ongoing action continuing up to a future time of perspective (compare uses of the perfect present above).

I **shall have finished** my essay by Thursday.

When I finally search him he **will have disposed** of the evidence.

By next year we **will have lived** in this house for half a century.

The same construction may occur when *will* or *shall* is given one of its other meanings; for example:

He **will have had** his tea by now. (confident speculation about the present)

You **will have completed** this task by the time I return, is that understood? (giving instruction)

4.) *Perfect Future in the Past (Perfect Conditional)*

The *Perfect Future in the Past* construction combines Perfect Aspect with Conditional mood, and consists of **would** (or the contraction **'d**, or sometimes *should* in the 1st person, as above), the bare Infinitive **have**, and the Past Participle of the main Verb. It is used to denote conditional situations attributed to past time, usually those that are or may be contrary to fact.

I **would have set** an extra place if I had known you were coming.

I **would have set** an extra place (but I didn't because someone said you weren't coming). (implicit condition)

The same construction may have ordinary Future-in-the-Past meanings.

D.) THE 4 PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSES

1.) *Perfect Present Continuous*

The *Perfect Present Continuous* (also known as *Present Perfect Continuous*) construction combines some of this Perfect Continuous Aspect with present tense. It is formed with the Present tense of **have** (*have* or *has*), the Past Participle of **be** (*been*), and the Present participle of the main Verb and the ending "-ing"

This construction is used for ongoing action in the past that continues right up to the present or has recently finished:

I **have been writing** this paper all morning.

Why are his eyes red? He **has been crying**.

It is frequently used when stating *for how long*, or *since when*, something is the case:

She **has been working** here since 1997.

How long **have you been sitting** there?

They **have been arguing** about it for two weeks.

In these sentences the actions are still continuing, but it is the past portion of them that is being considered, and so the Perfect aspect is used. (A sentence without Perfect aspect, such as *I am sitting here for three hours*, implies an intention to perform the action for that length of time.) With Stative Verbs that are not used in the Continuous, and for situations that are considered permanent, the normal Perfect Present (non- Continuous) tense is used instead.

2.) *Perfect Continuous Past*

The *Perfect Continuous Past* tense (also known as the *Past Perfect Continuous* or *Pluperfect Progressive* or *Pluperfect Continuous*) combines Perfect Continuous Aspect with Past tense. It is formed by combining **had** (the Past tense of the Helper Verb **have**), **been** (the Past Participle of **be**), and the Present Participle of the main Verb.

Uses of the *Perfect Continuous Past tense* are analogous to those of the *Perfect Continuous Present tense*, except that the point of reference is in the Past. For example:

I was tired because I **had been running**.

By yesterday morning they **had** already **been working** for twelve hours.

Among the witnesses was John Smith, who **had been staying** at the hotel since July 10.

This form is sometimes used for actions in the past that were interrupted by some event. For example:

I **had been working** on my novel when she entered the room to talk to me.

This implies that I stopped working when she came in (or had already stopped a short time before); the *Simple Past Continuous tense* (*I was working...*) would not necessarily carry this implication.

If the Verb in question does not use the Continuous aspect, then the plain *Perfect Past tense* is used instead (see examples in the previous section).

The *Perfect Continuous Past tense* may also have additional specific uses similar to those of the ordinary *Perfect Past tense*.

3.) *Perfect Future Continuous*

The *Perfect Future Continuous tense* combines Perfect Continuous aspect with Future time reference. It is formed by combining the Modal Verb **will** (or sometimes *shall*, as above), the bare Infinitive **have**, the Past Participle **been**, and the Present Participle of the main Verb.

Uses of the *Perfect Continuous Future tense* are analogous to those of the *Perfect Continuous Present tense*, except that the point of reference is in the Future. For example:

He will be very tired because he **will have been working** all morning.

By 6 o'clock we **will have been drinking** for ten hours.

The same construction may occur when the Modal Verb (usually **will**) has one of its other meanings, particularly expressing a confident assumption about the present:

No chance of finding him sober now; he'll **have been drinking** all day.

4.) *Perfect Continuous Future in the Past (Perfect Continuous Conditional)*

The *Perfect Future tense in the Continuous Past* or *Perfect Continuous Conditional* construction combines the Perfect Continuous Aspect with Conditional Mood. It

consists of **would** (or sometimes *should* in the first person, as above) with the bare Infinitive **have**, the Past Participle **been** and the Present Participle of the main Verb. It generally refers to a conditional ongoing situation in hypothetical (usually counterfactual) past time:

I **would have been sitting** on that seat if I hadn't been late for the party.

[About meanings and other Conditional constructions See page 217 ff and 259 ff.](#)

HAVE GOT and CAN SEE

In colloquial English, particularly British English, the *Perfect Present tense* of the verb **get**, namely **have got** or **has got**, is frequently used in place of the *Simple Present tense* of **have** (i.e. *have* or *has*) when denoting possession, broadly defined. For example:

Formal: *I have three brothers; Does he have a car?*

Informal: *I've got three brothers; Has he got a car?*

Note that in American English, the form *got* is used in this idiom, even though the standard Past Participle of *get* is *gotten*.

The same applies in the expression of present obligation: *I've got to go now* may be used in place of *I have to (must) go now*.

In very informal registers, the contracted form of *have* or *has* may be omitted altogether: *I got three brothers*.

Another common idiom is the use of the Modal Verb **can** (or *could* for the Past tense or Conditional) together with Verbs of perception such as *see*, *hear*, etc., rather than the plain verb. For example:

I **see** three houses or I **can see** three houses.

I **hear** a humming sound or I **can hear** a humming sound.

Aspectual distinctions can be made, particularly in the past tense:

I **saw** it (event) vs. I **could see** it (ongoing state).

BEEN and GONE

In Perfect constructions apparently requiring the Verb **go**, the normal Past Participle *gone* is often replaced by the past participle of the link verb **be**, namely **been**. This gives rise to sentences of contrasting meaning.

When **been** is used, the implication is that, at the time of reference, the act of going took place previously, but the Subject is no longer at the place in question (unless a specific time frame including the present moment is specified). When **gone** is used,

the implication is again that the act of going took place previously, but that the Subject is still at (or possibly has not yet reached) that place (unless repetition is specified lexically). For example:

My father **has gone** to Japan. (he is in Japan, or on his way there, now)

My father **has gone** to Japan five times. (he may or may not be there now)

My father **has been** to Japan. (he has visited Japan at some time in his life)

My father **has been** in Japan for three weeks. (he is still there)

When I returned, John **had gone** to the shops. (he was out of the house)

By the time I returned, John **had gone** to the shops three times. (he may or may not still be there)

When I returned, John **had been** to the shops. (the shopping was done, John was likely back home)

When I returned, John **had been** at the shops for three hours. (he was still there)

Note that **been** is used in such sentences in combination with **to** as if it were a Verb of motion (being followed by adverbial phrases of motion), which is different from its normal uses as part of the Link Verb **be**. Compare:

Sue **has been to** the beach. (as above; Sue went to the beach at some time before now)

Sue **has been on** the beach. (use of *been* simply as part of *be*; she spent time on the beach)

The above sentences with the *Perfect Present tense* can be further compared with alternatives using the *Simple Past tense*, such as:

My father **went** to Japan.

As usual, this tense would be used if a specific past time frame is stated ("in 1995", "last week") or is implied by the context (e.g. the event is part of a past narrative, or my father is no longer alive or capable of traveling). Use of this form does not in itself determine whether or not the Subject is still there.

Conditional sentences

A conditional sentence usually contains two clauses: an *if*-clause or similar expressing the condition (the *protasis*), and a main clause expressing the conditional circumstance (the *apodosis*). In English language teaching, conditional sentences are classified according to type as first, second or third conditional; there also exist "zero conditional" and mixed conditional sentences.

A "first conditional" sentence expresses a future circumstance conditional on some other future circumstance. It uses the Simple present tense (with future reference) in

the condition clause, and the Simple future tense with *will* (or some other expression of future) in the main clause:

If he **comes** late, I **will be** angry.

A "second conditional" sentence expresses a hypothetical circumstance conditional on some other circumstance, referring to nonpast time. It uses the Simple Past tense (with the Past Subjunctive **were** or sometimes **was**) in the condition clause, and the Simple conditional formed with *would* in the main clause:

If he **came** late, I **would be** angry.

A "third conditional" sentence expresses a hypothetical (usually counterfactual) circumstance in the past. It uses the *Perfect Past tense* in the condition clause, and the Perfect Conditional in the main clause:

If he **had come** late, I **would have been** angry.

A "mixed conditional" mixes the second and third patterns (for a past circumstance conditional on a not specifically past circumstance, or vice versa):

If I **knew** Latin, I **wouldn't have made** that mistake just now.

If I **had gotten** married young, I **would have** a family by now.

The "Zero Conditional" is a pattern independent of tense, simply expressing the dependence of the truth of one proposition on the truth of another:

If Brian **is** right then Fred **has** the jewels.

Expressions of WISH

Particular rules apply to the tenses and verb forms used after the Verb **wish** and certain other expressions with similar meaning.

When the Verb **wish** governs a finite clause, the past tense (*Simple Past tense* or *Simple Past Continuous tense* as appropriate) is used when the desire expressed concerns a present state, the *Perfect Past tense* (or *Perfect Past Continuous tense*) when it concerns a (usually counterfactual) past state or event, and the *Simple Future tense in the Past* (*Simple Conditional*) with **would** when it concerns a desired present action or change of state. For example:

I wish you **were** here. (past tense for desired present state)

Do you wish you **were playing** in this match? (past progressive for present ongoing action)

I wish I **had been** in the room then. (past perfect for counterfactual past state)

I wish they **had locked** the door. (past perfect for counterfactual past action)

I wish you **would shut** up! (desired present action)

Do you wish it **would rain**? (desired present change of state)

The same forms are generally used independently of the tense or form of the Verb **wish**:

I wished you **were** there. (past tense for desired state at the time of wishing)

The same rules apply after the expression *if only*:

If only he **knew** French!

If only I **had looked** in the bedroom!

If only they **would stop** talking!

In finite clauses after *would rather* and *it's (high) time*, the past tense is used:

I'd rather you **came** with me.

It's time they **gave** up.

After **would rather** the Present Subjunctive is also sometimes possible: *I'd rather you/he **come** with me.*

After all of the above expressions (though not normally *it's (high) time*) the Past Subjunctive **were** may be used instead of *was*:

I wish I **were** less tired.

If only he **were** a trained soldier.

Note that other syntactic patterns are possible with most of these expressions. The verb **wish** can be used with a *to*-infinitive or as an ordinary transitive verb (*I wish to talk; I wish you good health*). The expressions **would rather** and **it's time** can also be followed by a *to*-infinitive.

After the verb *hope* the above rules do not apply; instead the logically expected tense is used, except that often the present tense is used with future meaning:

I hope you **get** better soon.

Indirect speech

Verbs often undergo tense changes in indirect speech. This commonly occurs in content clauses (typically **that**-clauses and indirect questions), when governed by a predicate of saying (thinking, knowing, etc.) which is in the past tense or Conditional Mood.

In this situation the following tense and aspect changes occur relative to the original words:

- Present changes to past:
"I like apples." → He said that he **liked** apples.
"We are riding." → They claimed that they **were riding**.
"You have sinned." → I was told that I **had sinned**.
- Simple Past changes to Perfect Past (and sometimes Simple Continuous Past to Perfect Continuous Past):

"They finished all the wine earlier." → He thought they **had finished** all the wine earlier.

This change does not normally apply, however, when the past tense is used to denote an unreal rather than a past circumstance:

"I would do anything you **asked**." → He said he would do anything she **asked**.

- Future changes to conditional, also referred to as future-in-the-past (i.e. *will/shall* changes to *would/should*):
"The match will end in a draw." → He predicted that the match **would end** in a draw.
- The Modal Verbs **can** and **may** change to their *Past* forms **could** and **might**:
"We may attend." → She told us that they **might** attend.

Verb forms not covered by any of the above rules (verbs already in the Perfect Past, or formed with *would* or other Modal Verbs not having a Past equivalent) do not change. Note that application of the above rules is not compulsory; sometimes the original Verb tense is retained, particularly when the statement (with the original tense) remains equally valid at the moment of reporting:

"The earth orbits the sun." → Copernicus stated that the earth **orbits** the sun.

Note also that the above tense changes do not apply when the verb of saying (etc.) is not Past or Conditional in form; in particular there are no such changes when that verb is in the perfect present: *He has said that he likes apples*.

Dependent clauses

Apart from the special cases referred to in the sections above, many other dependent clauses use a tense that might not logically be expected – in particular the *Simple Present tense* is used when the reference is to future time, and the *Simple Past tense* is used when the reference is to a hypothetical situation (in other words, the form with *will* is replaced by the Present tense, and the form with *would* by the Past tense). This occurs in condition clauses (as mentioned above), in clauses of time and place, and in many relative clauses:

If he **finds** your sweets, he will eat them.

We will report as soon as we **receive** any information.

The bomb will explode where it **lands**.

Go up to the first person that you **see**.

In the above examples, the *Simple Present tense* is used instead of the *Simple Future tense*, even though the reference is to future time. Examples of similar uses with other tense-aspect combinations are given below:

We will wash up while you **are tidying**. (Simple Continuous Present instead of Simple Continuous Future)

Please log off when you **have finished** working. (Perfect Present instead of Perfect Future)

If we **were** that hungry, we would go into the first restaurant that we **saw**. (Simple Past instead of Simple Conditional)

We would be searching the building while you **were searching** the grounds. (Simple Continuous past instead of Simple Continuous Conditional)

In that case the dogs would find the scent that you **had left**. (Perfect Past instead of Perfect Conditional)

This does not apply to all dependent clauses, however; if the future time or hypothetical reference is expressed in the dependent clause independently of the main clause, then a form with *will* or *would* in a dependent clause is possible:

This is the man who **will guide** you through the mountains.

We entered a building where cowards **would fear** to tread.

USES OF NONFINITE VERBS

The main uses of the various nonfinite Verb forms (Infinitives, Participles and Gerunds) are described in the following sections.

The 8 x 2 Infinitives

The Infinitive is the base form of a Verb. The Simple Infinitive base is the Verb form you will find in a dictionary. Each Infinitive has at least two usage forms. Look:

- the **to-Infinitive** = to + base
- the **bare (or zero) infinitive** = base

Bare Infinitive	To-Infinitive	Bare Infinitive	To-Infinitive
be	to be	do	to do
have	to have	get	to get

The negative Infinitive is formed by putting **not** in front of any form of the Infinitive. Examples

- I decided **not to go** to London.
- He asked me **not to be** late.
- I should like you **not to sing** so loudly.
- I'd rather **not eat** meat.
- I might **not come**.

In English, when we talk about the Infinitive we are usually referring to the **Simple Infinitive** which is the most common one (Some call it "*Present Infinitive*" which is the wrong name as it cannot show any tense at all). If the Infinitive is used either with or without "to" and that depends pretty much on the preceding Verb. The Modal Verbs "will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might; must; dare, need", for example, do not require the use of "to".

What do we use the Infinitive for? To say it in a simplified way, the Infinitive (particularly a "to-Infinitive") serves as a Complement of a sentence. A Complement is a kind of Verb phrase that can stand at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. Normally, this Verb phrase contains an Infinitive. This Complement tells you what the sentence is about. Many students and teachers might believe that there are only those two Infinitives shown above. But that is not true.

Just as with any other Verb, we can express the Infinitive in 4 distinguished "Points of View". We call them "aspects". These are the 4 aspects:

1. **Simple Aspect**
2. **Simple Continuous Aspect**
3. **Perfect Aspect**
4. **Perfect Continuous Aspect**

Each of those 4 aspects can be expressed either in the **Active Voice** or in the **Passive Voice**. That gives us 8 distinguished groups. Each of these 8 groups has a **bare Infinitive** (also called **zero Infinitive** because it has no "to" before it), 8 in total; and each of these groups also has a **to-Infinitive**, another 8 in total. (So, strictly speaking, we have 2 Infinitives per each group, that is 16 Infinitives in total.) Here are the 8 types of Infinitive, each of which can appear with or without the Preposition "to" before it:

	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Simple Infinitive	(to) write	(to) be written
Simple Continuous Infinitive	(to) be writing	(to) be being written
Perfect Infinitive	(to) have written	(to) have been written
Perfect Continuous Infinitive	(to) have been writing	(to) have been being written

Do remember: We have 8 Infinitives in English, either with or without "to"!

Function of the Infinitives

As the **Infinitive has no tense**, it does not in itself indicate the time of the action that it refers to. However, it can **have aspect**, which shows the temporal relationship between the action expressed by the Infinitive and the time of the preceding Verb. There is **no difference in meaning** between a **to-Infinitive** or a **bare Infinitive** (without to):

- I ought to call them. (to-Infinitive)
- I should call them. (bare infinitive)
- I had better call them. (bare infinitive)

In the negative, the negation **not** usually comes before the Infinitive:

- I ought **not** call them.
- I should **not** call them.
- I had better **not** call them.

In some cases, the Verb in the main clause is negative, not the Infinitive:

- I want to call them.
- I **do not** want to call them.

Native speakers often use Infinitives to avoid inconsistent Verb tense agreement. As **the Infinitive** cannot express tense or time, it **always refers to the same time** as that of the preceding Verb: If the Infinitive takes a Continuous or Perfect form, it only expresses an action in those aspects or their combinations (Perfect Continuous). I give you some general examples in the **Active Voice** (Remember: *After the Modal Verbs "will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might; must; dare, need", the following Infinitive does not require the use of "to"!*). The **4 Active Infinitives**:

1.) The Simple Infinitive

The **Simple Infinitive** is used to express an action or a plain fact after a Helper Verb which must be followed by the Infinitive. The Simple Infinitive is used either as **bare Infinitive** or as **to-Infinitive**. Examples:

- I was glad **to see** her.
- He must **be** very happy.
- I shall **arrange** a meeting with the manager.
- My son's football coach is said **to be** very strict.

2.) The Simple Continuous Infinitive

The **Simple Continuous Infinitive** is used to express a continuing action after a Verb or Helper Verb which must be followed by the Infinitive. The Simple Continuous Infinitive is formed: **to be + Present Participle**. Examples:

- We should **be hurrying**. We're late!
- You must **be joking!**
- You had better **be working** on your report when I get there.
- This time next week, I shall **be lying** on the beach in Greece.
- Vincent was reported **to be staying** in Paris at that time.
- I am glad **to be sitting** here.
- I should really like **to be swimming** in a nice lake right now.
- I happened **to be waiting** for the bus when the accident happened.
- It must be nice **to be going** to a wedding overseas.

3.) The Perfect Infinitive

The **Perfect Infinitive** is most commonly found in **type 3 Conditional** sentences as part of the Perfect Conditional, although it can be used in other places as well. The **Perfect Infinitive** is formed: **to have + Past Participle**. Examples:

- They must **have forgotten** about the deadline.
- By next week, they will **have finished** painting the rooms.
- If I had known you were coming I would **have baked** a cake.
- Someone must **have broken** the window and climbed in.
- That man may **have noticed** the bank robbers' getaway car.
- I am glad **to have studied** at that school.
- Lucy was assumed **to have left** the day before.
- He pretended **to have seen** the film.
- Before I turn 40, I want **to have written** a book.

4.) The Perfect Continuous Infinitive

The **Perfect Continuous Infinitive** is used to express a continuing but now completed action after a Verb which must be followed by the infinitive. The Perfect Continuous Infinitive is formed: **to have been + Present Participle**. Examples:

- I am glad **to have been living** in York for the last ten years.
- He must **have been waiting** for ages.
- Soon, he will **have been running** for four hours.
- They were thought to **have been preparing** for days.
- The woman seemed **to have been crying**.

- He pretended **to have been painting** all day.
- I would have preferred **to have been sleeping** all afternoon.
- You must **have been waiting** for hours!
- They might **have been talking** about you before you came in.
- You should **have been studying** for your test.

And, of course, when there is an Active Voice there might be examples in the **Passive Voice** too.

The Passive Infinitive

The **Passive Infinitive** is used in some constructions using the **Passive Voice**. It is particularly common after *Modal Verbs* (*may, should, could, etc.*) to indicate what is possible or what is correct. The **Passive Infinitive** is formed: **to be + Past Participle**. I give you some examples in the Passive Voice. (As with the Infinitives of the Active Voice, there are situations where the Passive Infinitive without **to** is required. This happens after most Modal Verbs, and in other places where bare Infinitives are used.): The **4 Passive Infinitives**:

1.) Simple Infinitive

- This window may **be opened** but that one must stay closed.
- Alice could **be given** a prize for her artwork.
- Your composition *has* **to be typed**. (has to = must)
- The cups *have* **to be washed**. (have to = must)
- I am expecting **to be given** a pay-rise next month.
- She is hoping **to be elected** president.
- The carpet needs **to be washed**.
- These doors should **be shut** at all times.

2.) Simple Continuous Infinitive (rarely used):

- The spy's phone was believed **to be being tapped**.
- The thief was supposed **to be being followed** by you.

3.) Perfect Infinitive

- This sonnet must **have been written** by Shakespeare.
- The cups must **have been washed** by my mother.

4.) Perfect Continuous Infinitive (rarely used)

- The picture is believed **to have been being painted** for years.
- That book is believed **to have been being written** by two writers.

Now, let us take a closer look at the difference between the **bare Infinitives** and the **to-Infinitives**.

The Bare Infinitive and its Functions

A bare Infinitive (the base form of a Verb, without the particle **to**), or an Infinitive phrase introduced by such a Verb, may be used as follows:

As Complement of the Helper Verb *do*, in negations, questions and other situations where *do*-support is used:

- Do you want to go home?
- Please do not laugh.

As Complement of *will* (shall) or *would* (should) in the Future and Conditional (or Future in the Past) constructions:

- The cat will come home.
- We should appreciate an answer at your earliest convenience.

More generally, as Complement of any of the Modal Verbs *will, shall, can, may, must, should, would* (including *would rather*), *could, might*, and also *dare* and *need* in their modal-like uses:

- I can speak Welsh.
- Need you use so much flour?
- I dare say he will be back soon.

As Complement of the expression *had better* (or *had best*):

- You had better give back that telephone.

As second Complement of the transitive Verbs *let* (including in the expression "let's ...", short for "let us"), *make*, *have* (in the sense of cause something to be done) and *bid* (in old-fashioned usage). These are examples of raising-to-object Verbs (the logical Subject of the governed Infinitive is raised to the position of Direct Object of the governing Verb):

- That made me laugh. (but passive voice: I was made to laugh; see under to-infinitive below)
- We let them leave.
- Let's play Monopoly!
- I had him look at my car.

- She bade me approach her. (old-fashioned)

As second or sole Complement of the Verb help (the to-Infinitive can also be used):

- This proposal will help (to) balance the budget.
- Can you help me (to) get over this wall?

As second Complement of Verbs of perception such as see, hear, feel, etc., although in these cases the present participle is also possible, particularly when an ongoing state rather than a single action is perceived:

- We saw him try to escape. (with present participle: We saw him trying to escape.)
- She felt him breathe on her neck. (with present participle: She felt him breathing on her neck.)

As a predicative expression in pseudo-cleft sentences of the following type:

- What I did was tie the rope to the beam.
- What you should do is invite her round for dinner.

After why, in elliptical questions:

- Why bother?

The form of the bare Infinitive is also commonly taken as the dictionary form or citation form (lemma) of an English Verb.

The **bare Infinitive** in some typical examples:

The bare Infinitive after Helper and Modal Verbs. Examples:

- She **cannot speak** to you.
- He **should give** her some money.
- **Shall I talk** to him?
- **Would you like** a cup of coffee?
- I **might stay** another night in the hotel.
- They **must leave** before 10.00 a.m.

The bare Infinitive after Verbs of perception. With Verbs of perception, the pattern is Verb + Object + zero Infinitive. Examples:

- He **saw her fall** from the cliff.
- We **heard them close** the door.
- They **saw us walk** toward the lake.
- She **felt the spider crawl** up her leg.

The bare Infinitive after the Verbs 'MAKE' and 'LET'. Examples:

- Her parents **let her stay** out late.
- **Let's go** to the cinema tonight.
- You **made me come** with you.
- Do not **make me study** that boring grammar book!

The bare Infinitive after the expressions "HAD BETTER" or "HAD BEST" (which means "should" or "ought to"). Examples:

- We **had better take** some warm clothing.
- She **had better ask** him not to come.
- We **had better reserve** a room in the hotel.
- You **had better give** me your address.
- They **had better work** harder on their homework.

The bare Infinitive with "WHY"

The question word *why* is followed by the zero Infinitive when making suggestions.

Examples:

- **Why wait** until tomorrow?
- **Why not ask** him now?
- **Why leave** before the end of the game?
- **Why walk** when we can go in the car?
- **Why not buy** a new bed?

The to-Infinitive and its Functions

The *to*-infinitive consists of the bare Infinitive introduced by the particle **to**. Outside dictionary headwords, it is commonly used as a citation form of the English Verb ("How do we conjugate the Verb **to go**?") It is also commonly given as a translation of foreign infinitives ("The German word *trinken* means '**to drink**'.") Note that modifiers may be placed between **to** and the Verb (as in **to boldly go**; **to slowly drift away**). This is neither a grammatical error nor a stylistic mishap!

The *to*-infinitive is used in many sentence constructions, often expressing the purpose of something or someone's opinion about something.

1. to indicate the purpose or intention of an action. In this case **to** has the same meaning as **in order to** or so as to. (e.g. I am calling **to** ask you about dad.)
2. as the Subject of the sentence. (e.g. **To be or not to be**, that is the question.)

3. to indicate what something can or will be used for. In this pattern, the to-Infinitive follows a Noun or Pronoun. (e.g. Would you like something to drink?)

The main uses of *to*-Infinitives, or infinitive phrases introduced by them, are as follows:

As Complement of the Modal and Helper Verbs *ought (to)* and *used (to)*:

- We ought to do that now.
- I used to play outside every day when I was a child.

As Complement of many other Verbs used intransitively, including *need* and *dare* (when not used as modal-like verbs), *want*, *expect*, *try*, *hope*, *agree*, *refuse*, etc. These are raising-to-Subject Verbs, where the logical Subject is promoted to the position of Subject of the governing Verb. With some Verbs the Infinitive may carry a significantly different meaning from a Gerund: compare *I stopped to talk to her* with *I stopped talking to her*, or *I forgot to buy the bread* with *I forgot buying the bread*.

- I need to get to a telephone.
- Try not to make so many mistakes.
- They refused to assist us.

As second Complement of certain transitive Verbs. These are mostly raising-to-Object Verbs, as described above for the bare Infinitive; however, in some cases, it is the Subject of the main clause that is the logical Subject of the infinitival clause, as in "*John promises Mary to cook*", where the person who will cook is John (the Subject of the main sentence), and not Mary (the Object).

- I want him to be promoted.
- He expects his brother to arrive this week.

As an adverbial modifier expressing purpose, or sometimes result (also expressible using *in order to* in the first case, or *so as to* in either case):

- I came here to listen to what you have to say.
- They cut the fence to gain access to the site.
- She scored three quick goals to level the score.

As a Subject of a sentence or as a predicative expression. (A gerund can often be used for this also.)

- To live is to suffer.
- For them to be with us in this time of crisis is evidence of their friendship.

In apposition to a Subject expletive Pronoun *it*, in sentences of the following type:

- It is nice to live here.
- It makes me happy to feed my animals.

Alone in certain exclamations or elliptical sentences, and in certain sentence-modifying expressions:

- Oh, to be in England ...
- To think that he used to call me sister.
- To be honest, I don't think you have a chance.

In certain fixed expressions, such as *in order to* (see above), *so as to*, *as if to*, *about to* (meaning on the point of doing something), *have to* (for obligation or necessity). For more on the expression *am to*, *is to*, *were to*, etc. (usually expressing obligation or expectation):

- We are to demolish this building.
- He smiled as if to acknowledge his acquiescence.

In elliptical questions (direct or indirect), where no Subject is expressed (but for those introduced by *why*, see bare Infinitive above):

- Well, what to do now?
- I wondered whether to resign at that point.

As a modifier of certain Nouns and Adjectives:

- the reason to laugh
- the effort to expand
- anxious to get a ticket

As a relative clause. These modify a Noun, and often have a passive-like construction where the Object (or a Preposition Complement) is zero in the Infinitive phrase, the gap being understood to be filled by the Noun being modified. An alternative in the prepositional case is to begin with a prepositional phrase containing a Relative Pronoun (as is done sometimes in finite relative clauses).

- the thing to leave behind (the thing understood as the Object of leave)
- a Subject to talk loudly about (a Subject understood as the Complement of about)
- a Subject about which to talk loudly (alternative to the above, somewhat more formal)
- the man to save us (no passive-like construction, the man understood as the Subject of save)

As a modifier of an Adjective, again with a passive-like construction as above, here with the gap understood to be filled by the noun modified by the Adjective phrase:

- easy to use
- nice to look at

In many of the above uses, the implied Subject of the Infinitive can be marked using a prepositional phrase with **for**: "This game is easy **for a child to play**", etc. However this does not normally apply when the Infinitive is the Complement of a Verb (other than the copula, and certain Verbs that allow a Construction with *for*, such as *wait*: "They waited for us to arrive"). It also does not apply in **elliptical questions**, or in **fixed expressions** such as **so as to**, **am to**, etc. (although it does apply in **in order to**). When the Verb is implied, the *to*-infinitive may be reduced to simply *to*: "Do I have **to**?"

The to-Infinitive in some typical examples

The *to*-Infinitive is used in many sentence constructions, often expressing the purpose of something or someone's opinion about something. The *to*-Infinitive is used following a large collection of different Verbs as well.

The to-Infinitive to indicate the purpose or intention of an action.

In this case **to** has the same meaning as **in order to** or **so as to**. Examples

- She came **to collect** her pay cheque.
- The hunters went **to find** firewood.
- I am calling **to ask** you about Papa.
- You sister has gone **to finish** her homework.

The to-Infinitive as the Subject of the sentence

Attention: This is a formal usage and is far more common in written English. (In spoken English we often use the Gerund instead. See: *Gerund versus Infinitive*.)

Examples:

- **To be** or not to be, that is the question.
- **To know** her is to love her.
- **To visit** the Grand Canyon is my life-long dream.
- **To understand** statistics, that is our aim.

The to-Infinitive to indicate what something can or will be used for

In this pattern, the *to*-infinitive follows a noun or pronoun. Examples

- The children need a garden **to play** in.
- I would like a sandwich **to eat**.
- I don't have anything **to wear**.
- Would you like something **to drink**?

The to-Infinitive after Adjectives

There is a common pattern using the *to*-Infinitive with an Adjective. These phrases are formed: **Subject + to be + Adjective + (for/of someone) + to-Infinitive + (rest of sentence)**

Subject	to be	Adjective	(for / of someone)	to-Infinitive	(rest of sentence)
It	is	good		to talk.	
It	is	good	of you	to talk	to me.
It	is	important		to be patient.	
It	is	important	for Tony	to be patient	with his little brother.
I	am	happy		to be	here.
The dog	is	naughty		to destroy	our couch.

The to-Infinitive to make a comment or judgement

To use the *to*-Infinitive when making a comment or judgement about a Noun, the pattern is: **Subject + to be + noun phrase + to-Infinitive**

Subject	to be	Noun phrase	to-Infinitive
It	was	a stupid place	to park.
That	is	a dangerous way	to behave.
What you said	was	a rude thing	to say.
This	is	the right thing	to do.
Those	were	the wrong kind of eggs	to buy.
Jim	is	the best person	to hire.

The to-Infinitive with Adverbs

The *to*-Infinitive is used frequently with the Adverbs **too** and **enough** to express the reasoning behind our satisfaction or insatisfaction. The pattern is that **too** and **enough** are placed before or after the Adjective, Adverb, or Noun that they modify in the same way they would be without the *to*-Infinitive. We then follow them by the *to*-Infinitive to explain the reason why the quantity is excessive, sufficient, or insufficient. Normally the *to*-Infinitive and everything that follows can be removed, leaving a sentence that still functions grammatically. Examples:

- There's **too much** sugar **to put** in this bowl.

- I had *too many* books **to carry**.
- This soup is *too hot* **to eat**.
- She was *too tired* **to work**.
- He arrived *too late* **to see** the film stars.
- I've had *enough food* **to eat**.
- She is *old enough* **to make up** her own mind.
- There is *not enough* snow **to ski** on.
- You are *not old enough* **to have** children!

The to-Infinitive with question words

The Verbs *ask, decide, explain, forget, know, show, tell, and understand* can be followed by a question word such as *where, how, what, who, and when* + the **to-Infinitive**. Examples:

- She asked me **how to use** the washing machine.
- Do you understand **what to do**?
- Tell me **when to press** the button.
- I've forgotten **where to put** this little screw.
- I'm not sure I know **who to call**.

Verbs followed by Infinitives

Many different Verbs can be followed, by a second Verb in the Infinitive. The Verbs listed next are followed by a **to-Infinitive** when the Infinitive is used. Verbs marked with * **can** also be followed by a **that-clause**, as shown in the examples. Verbs marked with ** **must** be followed by a that-clause when the Subject of the main Verb is "it".

Verbs followed by the Infinitive:

afford	agree*	aim	appear**	arrange*
bother	care	claim*	condescend	consent
decide*	demand*	determine*	endeavour	fail
guarantee*	happen*	hasten	have (= be obliged)	hesitate
hope*	learn	long	manage	offer
prepare	pretend*	proceed	promise*	propose
prove (= turn out)	refuse	resolve*	seek	seem**
strive	swear*	tend	threaten*	trouble
undertake	volunteer	vow*		

Examples:

- I **hope to see** you next week.
- I **hope that** I shall see you next week.
- He **claimed to be** an expert.
- He **claimed that** she was an expert.
- I **managed to reach** the top of the hill.
- Would you **care to swim**?

Examples with "it":

- **It appeared that** no-one had locked the door.
- He **appeared to be** lost.
- **It seems that** she is running late.
- She **seems to be** running late.

Verbs followed by a Noun + the Infinitive:

accustom	aid	appoint	assist	cause	challenge
command*	defy	direct*	drive	empower	enable
encourage	entice	entitle	entreat	force	get
implore*	incite	induce	inspire	instruct*	invite
lead	leave (= make someone responsible)	oblige	order*	persuade*	press
prompt	provoke	remind*	require*	stimulate	summon
teach	tell	tempt	trust*	warn*	

Examples:

- The professor **challenged his students to argue** with his theory.
- This law **empowers the government to charge** higher taxes.
- You cannot **force me to do** something I do not agree with.
- I **invited the new student to have** dinner with me.
- What **inspired you to write** this poem?

Verbs without a Noun before a that-clause

When certain Verbs are followed by a that-clause, there is no Noun before the that clause even though there is a noun before the Infinitive. This is the case for the Verbs *command, direct, entreat, implore, order, require, & trust*. Examples:

- I **trust you to tell** the truth.
- I **trust that** you are telling the truth.
- The general **commanded his men to surrender**.
- The general **commanded that** his men surrender.

Verbs with a Noun before a that-clause

Other Verbs, when followed by a that-clause require a Noun before the that-clause, just as before the Infinitive. This is the case for the Verbs *persuade* and *remind*.

Examples:

- You cannot **persuade people to buy** small cars.
- You cannot **persuade people that** small cars are better.
- He **reminded me to take** my notebook to school.
- He **reminded me that** I would need my notebook.

Verbs with an optional Noun before a that-clause

A final group of Verbs when followed by a that-clause take an optional Noun before the that clause. This is the case for the Verbs *instruct*, *teach*, and *warn*. Examples:

- She **taught her students to appreciate** poetry.
- She **taught her students that** poetry was valuable.
- She **taught that** poetry was valuable.

Verbs followed by the infinitive or a Noun + the Infinitive

ask*	beg*	choose	dare	desire*	elect
expect*	help	mean* (=intend)	request*	want	wish*

Examples:

- I **asked him to show** me the book.
- I **asked to see** the book.
- She **helped me to put** away the dishes.
- She **helped to put** away the dishes.
- We **expect you to do** your best in the exam.
- We **expect to do** well on our exams.
- Do you **want to go** to the beach?
- Do you **want me to go** with you to the beach?

Using TO DARE

In negative and interrogative sentences the Infinitive with or without 'to' is possible as long as the Subject of both Verbs is the same, though it is more common to omit the 'to'. If the Subject of the two Verbs is different, you must include to. Examples:

- I **never dared tell** him what happened.
- Do you **dare tell** him?
- Would you **dare (to) jump** out of a plane?
- I **dare you to tell** him the truth.
- She **dared me to jump** off the wall.

Perfect and Continuous nonfinite constructions

There are also nonfinite constructions that are marked for Perfect, Continuous or Perfect Continuous aspect, using the Infinitives, Participles or Gerunds of the appropriate Auxiliaries. The meanings are as would be expected for the respective aspects: Perfect for prior occurrence, Continuous for ongoing occurrence at a particular time. (Passive Voice can also be marked in nonfinite constructions – with Infinitives, Gerunds and Present Participles – in the expected way: (to) **be eaten**, **being eaten**, **having been eaten**, etc.)

Examples of nonfinite constructions marked for the various aspects are given below.
Bare Infinitive:

You should **have left** earlier. (perfect infinitive)

She might **be revising**. (Continuous; refers to an ongoing action at this moment)

He must **have been working** hard. (Perfect Continuous; i.e. I assume he has been working hard)

To-Infinitive:

He is said **to have resigned**. (Perfect Infinitive; for this particular construction see *said to*)

I expect **to be sitting** here this time tomorrow. (Continuous)

He claims **to have been working** here for ten weeks. (Perfect Continuous)

Present Participle:

Having written the letter, she went to bed. (Perfect)

The man **having left**, we began to talk. (Perfect, in a nominative absolute construction)

Having been standing for several hours, they were beginning to feel tired.
(Perfect Continuous)

Past Participle:

We have **been waiting** a long time. (Continuous, used only as part of a Perfect Continuous construction)

Gerund:

My **having caught** the spider impressed the others. (Perfect)

We are not proud of **having been drinking** all night. (Perfect Continuous)

Other aspectual, temporal and modal information can be marked on nonfinite Verbs using **periphrastic** constructions. For example, a "Future Infinitive" can be constructed using forms such as (to) **be going to eat** or (to) **be about to eat**.

Deverbal uses

Certain words are formed from Verbs, but are used as common Nouns or Adjectives, without any of the grammatical behaviour of Verbs. These are sometimes called Verbal Nouns or Adjectives, but they are also called Deverbal Nouns and Deverbal Adjectives, to distinguish them from the truly "verbal" forms such as Gerunds and Participles.

Besides its nonfinite verbal uses as a Gerund or Present Participle, the **-ing** form of a Verb is also used as a Deverbal Noun, denoting an activity or occurrence in general, or a specific action or event (or sometimes a more distant meaning, such as **building** or **piping** denoting an Object or system of Objects). One can compare the construction and meaning of Noun phrases formed using the **-ing** form as a gerund, and of those formed using the same **-ing** form as a Deverbal Noun. Some points are noted below:

- The Gerund can behave like a Verb in taking Objects: crossing the river cost many lives. The Deverbal Noun does not take Objects, although the understood Object may be expressed by a Prepositional phrase with of: the crossing of the river cost many lives (an indirect object is expressed using to or for as appropriate: the giving of the award to John).
- The Gerund takes modifiers (such as Adverbs) that are appropriate to Verbs: eating heartily is good for the health. The Deverbal Noun instead takes modifiers appropriate to Nouns (especially Adjectives): his hearty eating is good for his health.
- The Deverbal Noun can also take Determiners, such as the Definite Article (particularly in denoting a single action rather than a general activity): the

opening of the bridge was delayed. Gerunds do not normally take determiners except for Possessives (as described below).

- Both Deverbal Nouns and Gerunds can be preceded by Possessive Determiners to indicate the agent (logical Subject) of the action: my taking a bath (see also above under Gerund and at fused Participle for the possible replacement of my with me); my taking of a bath. However, with the Deverbal Noun there are also other ways to express the agent:
 - Using a prepositional phrase with of, assuming that no such phrase is needed to express an Object: the singing of the birds (with a Gerund, this would be the birds' singing). In fact both Possessives and of phrases can be used to denote both Subjects and Objects of Deverbal Nouns, but the Possessive is more common for the Subject and of for the Object; these are also the assumed roles if both are present: John's wooing of Mary unambiguously denotes a situation where John wooed Mary, not vice versa.
 - Using a Prepositional phrase with by (compare similar uses of by with the Passive Voice): the raising of taxes by the government. This is not possible with the Gerund; instead one could say the government's raising taxes.
- Where no Subject is specified, the Subject of a Gerund is generally understood to be the Subject (or "interested party") of the main clause: I like singing loudly means I like it when I myself sing; Singing loudly is nice implies the singer is the person who finds it nice. This does not apply to Deverbal Nouns: I like loud singing is likely to mean that I like it when others sing loudly. This means that a sentence may have alternative meanings depending on whether the -ing form is intended as a Gerund or as a Deverbal Noun: in I like singing either function may be the intended one, but the meaning in each case may be different (I like to sing, if Gerund; I like hearing others sing, if Deverbal Noun).

Some **-ing** forms, particularly those such as *boring*, *exciting*, *interesting*, can also serve as Deverbal Adjectives (distinguished from the Present Participle in much the same way as the Deverbal Noun is distinguished from the Gerund). There are also many other Nouns and Adjectives derived from particular Verbs, such as *competition* and *competitive* from the Verb *compete* (as well as other types such as agent Nouns).

The 4 Gerunds

The Gerund plays almost the same role as the Infinitive. While the Infinitive is more formally used in writing, the Gerund is commonly used in spoken English. Although a Gerund is made from a Verb, speakers often treat it as a **Noun phrase**. Non-finite Verb forms ending in **-ing**, whether termed Gerund or Participle may belong to the Simple aspect or Perfect aspect, Active or Passive. The missing Continuous usually can be expressed by one of the 4 Continuous Infinitive forms. The Gerund itself has 4 forms — two for the Active Voice and two for the Passive Voice:

	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Simple Gerund	loving	being loved
Perfect Gerund	having loved	having been loved

Distinction from other uses of the -ing form

In traditional grammars, Gerunds are distinguished from other uses of a Verb's -ing form: the Present Participle (which is a non-finite Verb form like the gerund, but is adjectival or adverbial in function), and the pure verbal Noun or deverbal Noun. The distinction between Gerund and Present Participles is not recognised in modern reference grammars, since many uses are ambiguous. Non finite **-ing** clauses may have the following roles in a sentence:

	Role	Example
1	Subject	Eating cakes is pleasant His favourite activity is eating cakes
2	Extraposed Subject (in a passive-like construction)	It can be pleasant eating cakes She wants eating cakes That cake needs eating
3	Subject Complement	What I am looking forward to is eating cakes
4	Direct Object	I cannot stop eating cakes . I like eating cakes
5	Prepositional Object / Prepositional Complement	I dreamt of eating cakes She takes pleasure in eating cakes It prevents you from eating cakes too much Before eating cakes she gets the her coffee After eating the cakes , she went out
6	Adverbial	He walks the streets eating cakes
7	Part of Noun phrase	It's a picture of a man eating cakes
8	Part of Adjective phrase	They are all busy eating cakes

As the Gerund has no tense, it does not in itself indicate the time of the action that it refers to. However, it can show whether this time is the same as or earlier than the time of the Verb in the main clause.

1.) The Simple Gerund can refer to **the same time** as that of the Verb in the main clause:

- I hate **arguing** with you. (*arguing* refers to the same time as *hate*: I hate when we argue.)
- Jim suggested **going** back to our tents. (*going* refers to the same time as *suggested*: Jim suggested that we should go back to our tents.)

The Simple Gerund can also refer to **a time before** that of the Verb in the main clause:

- I don't remember **saying** anything like that. (*saying* refers to a time before *don't remember*: I don't remember that I said anything like that.)
- She regretted **not studying** harder when she was at school. (*not studying* refers to a time before *regretted*: She regretted that she hadn't studied harder when he was at school.)

2.) The Perfect Gerund refers to a time before that of the Verb in the main clause. However, it is only used if the time of the action expressed by the Gerund is not obvious from the context:

- He denied **being married**. (the Simple Gerund *being* refers to the same time as *denied*: He *denied* that he *was* married.)
- He denied **having been married**. (the Perfect Gerund *having been* refers to a time before *denied*: He *denied* that he *had been* married.)

If it is clear that an **earlier time** is meant, we use the Simple Gerund:

- He denied **stealing** the car. (He *denied* that he *had stolen* the car.)

Passive Gerunds are also possible:

- I hate **being lied** to. (Passive Simple Gerund: I hate it when people *lie* to me.)
- He complained of **having been** unjustly **accused**. (Passive Perfect Gerund: He complained that they *had* unjustly *accused* him.)

MY or ME?

It is considered correct to express the logical Subject (agent) of a Gerund by using a Possessive Adjective (*Jim objects to **my** helping him*), although in informal English a plain Object Pronoun is often used instead (*Jim objects to **me** helping him*).

Present Participle

The *Present Participle* is one of the uses of the **-ing** form of a Verb. This usage is adjectival or adverbial. The main uses of this Participle, or of participial phrases introduced by it, are as follows. (Uses of Gerunds and Verbal Nouns, which take the same **-ing** form, appear in sections below.)

- In *Simple Continuous* and *Perfect Continuous* constructions, as described in the relevant sections above:
The man is **fixing** my bike.
We had been **working** for nine hours.
- As an adjective phrase modifying a Noun:
the flower **opening** up
the news **supporting** the point
- As an adjectival phrase modifying a Noun phrase that is the object of a Verb, provided the Verb admits this particular construction. (For alternative or different constructions used with certain Verbs, see the sections on the bare Infinitive and *to*-Infinitive above.)
I saw them **digging** a hole.
We prefer it **standing** over there.
- As an adverbial phrase, where the role of Subject of the nonfinite verb is usually understood to be played by the subject of the main clause (but see dangling participle). A participial clause like this may be introduced by a conjunction such as *when* or *while*.
Looking out of the window, Mary saw a car go by. (it is understood to be Mary who was looking out of the window)
We peeled the apples while **waiting** for the water to boil.
- More generally, as a clause or sentence modifier, without any specifically understood Subject
Broadly **speaking**, the project was successful.
- In a nominative absolute construction, where the Participle is given an explicit subject (which normally is different from that of the main clause):
The children **being** hungry, I set about preparing tea.
The meeting was adjourned, Sue and I **objecting** that there were still matters to discuss.

Present participles may come to be used as pure Adjectives. Examples of Participles that do this frequently are **interesting**, **exciting**, and **enduring**. Such words may then take various adjectival prefixes and suffixes, as in *uninteresting* and *interestingly*.

Past Participle

English *Past Participles* have both Active and Passive uses. In a Passive use, an Object or preposition complement becomes Zero, the gap being understood to be filled by the Noun phrase the Participle modifies (compare similar uses of the *to*-Infinitive above). Uses of Past Participles and participial phrases introduced by them are as follows:

- In Perfect constructions as described in the relevant sections above (this is the chief situation where the Participle is active rather than passive):
He has **fixed** my bike.
They would have **sung** badly.
- In forming the Passive Voice:
My bike was **fixed** yesterday.
A new church is being **built** here.
- As an adjectival predicative expression used in constructions with certain Verbs (some of these are described under English Passive Voice):
Will you have your ear **looked** at by a doctor?
I found my bike **broken**.
- As an Adjective phrase directly modifying a Noun (see also reduced Relative Clause):
The bag **left** on the train cannot be traced.
- Used adverbially, or (with a Subject) in a nominative absolute construction:
Hated by his family, he left the town for good.
The bomb **defused**, he returned to his comrades.

The last type of phrase can be preceded with the Preposition *with*: *With these words **spoken**, he turned and left.*

As with Present Participles, Past Participles may function as simple Adjectives: "the *burnt* logs"; "we were very *excited*". These normally represent the passive meaning of the Participle, although some Participles formed from Intransitive Verbs can be used in an active sense: "the *fallen* leaves"; "our *fallen* comrades".

The 4 Basic Verb Structures In English Sentences

Verb forms can be confusing in English. For instance, when do we use the Infinitive form **go** and when should we use the Gerund form **going**? **General Rule: When we have two Verbs together in a sentence, the form of the second Verb is influenced by the first Verb!**

These are the 4 different structures that we use when there are two Verbs together in a sentence:

- Verb + bare Infinitive – *I **can go** there.*
- Verb + -ing – *I **love going** there.*
- Verb + to + Infinitive – *I **want to go** there.*
- Verb + Object + to + Infinitive – *He **wants me to go** there.*

1.) Verb + Bare Infinitive

This table shows **Verb + Bare Infinitive** (Verb in its Infinitive form without **to**):

How to do:	Examples:
We use the Bare Infinitive (an Infinitive without to) after certain Verbs followed by an Object. These Verbs include: <i>let, make, see, hear, feel.</i>	<i>My parents did not let me watch TV at night.</i> <i>Did you see anyone enter the building?</i> <i>He made me laugh.</i>
We use the Bare Infinitive after Modal Verbs: <i>will, shall, can, may, must; would should, etc.</i>	<i>He cannot sing.</i> <i>It might be a good idea.</i>

2.) Verb + -ing form

This table shows which Verbs require the second Verb to take the **-ing** form. **Verb + Gerund (Verb in its -ing form)**

How to do:	Examples:
We use a Verb in its -ing form after certain Verbs, including <i>avoid, admit, can't stand, deny, dislike, enjoy, hate, like, love, mind and practise.</i>	<i>I enjoy going to the cinema.</i> <i>I do not like living in a city.</i>
The -ing form is used after Prepositions .	<i>I am looking forward to seeing you.</i> <i>He insisted on seeing the shop manager.</i>

3.) Verb + to Infinitive

This table shows which Verbs require the second Verb to take the **to + Infinitive** (sometimes called the *full Infinitive*) form. **Verb + to + Infinitive**

How to do:	Examples:
We use to + Infinitive after certain Verbs, including <i>agree, arrange, decide, offer, seem, plan, want, need, promise, hope, refuse.</i>	<i>I have decided to lend him the car.</i> <i>He offered to help me.</i> <i>He promised not to say anything.</i>
We also use to + Infinitive after these structures: <i>ask someone to, tell him to, want her to, etc.</i>	<i>He told me to go there.</i> <i>She asked me to help her.</i>

4.) Verb + Object + to + Infinitive

Sometimes Verbs are followed by **an Object** and then by another Verb in the **to + Infinitive** form.

The **to + Infinitive** is sometimes called the *Full Infinitive*. Examples are: *to go, to be, to have, to speak*. **Verb + Object + to + Infinitive**

How to do:	Examples:
After some Verbs we use the structure someone + to + Infinitive .	<i>They helped their neighbour to fix his car.</i> <i>She asked me to give her some advice.</i>
Verbs which can be followed by this form include <i>advise, ask, allow, expect, encourage, force, help, invite, order, persuade, need, tell</i> .	<i>He told his assistant to send the parcel.</i> <i>She persuaded him to have lunch with her.</i> <i>We need someone to help us.</i>
The negative form is Object + not + to + Infinitive .	

Statistics on the Frequency of English Verb tenses

Out of pure curiosity, some people wonder how frequently each of the 32 tenses is used in the English language. The 4 Simple tenses alone account for 75%, about 10% for the Simple Continuous Present and Simple Continuous Past tenses, another 10% for the Perfect Present and Perfect Past tenses. All the rest share the remaining 5% with less or around 1% each. Here are some estimated figures:

1. Simple Present	40%
2. Simple Past	25%
3. Simple Future	7%
4. Simple Future in the Past	3%
1. Simple Continuous Present	5%
2. Simple Continuous Past	3%
3. Simple Continuous Future	1%
4. Simple Continuous Future in the Past	1%
1. Perfect Present	6%
2. Perfect Past	3%
3. Perfect Future	1%
4. Perfect Future in the Past	1%
1. Perfect Continuous Present	1%
2. Perfect Continuous Past	1%
3. Perfect Continuous Future	1%
4. Perfect Continuous Future in the Past	1%

To be honest, which ones of the tenses are used in what frequency depends very much on background and education of the speaker, and on the purpose of the speech as well. In writing, we use Simple tenses more while we use Continuous tenses more in speaking. The Passive Voice accounts for about 1 to 5% of all tenses, particularly in technical descriptions and the speech of politicians and newsreaders.

EASY METHODS TO LEARN THE ENGLISH VERB TENSES

A Verb is a word that usually tells about an action or a state and is the main part of a sentence. Every language in the world has Verbs, but they are not always used in the same ways. They can have different properties in different languages. In English, a proper sentence has a Verb. Verbs are the only kind of words that changes to show **Aspect Time, Mood, and Voice**. Chinese Verbs do not change at all. So we need to perform a clear concept that the students can grasp.

Teaching Techniques For Beginners

When we teach the Verb forms to beginners, we should combine the topic VERB with the topic DAY and the topic NUMBER. Why should we do this? Well, in Chinese, the days have no proper names but numbers! So we draw a table of 7 lines and 7 columns on a board and begin with Cardinal Numbers, days, Ordinal Numbers and we write them one under another. We let the students speak: *Monday is the first day of the week, Tuesday is the second day of the week* and so on. In this manner we practise 7 complete sentences:

1	Monday	is	the	first (1st)	day of the week
2	Tuesday	is	the	second (2nd)	day of the week
3	Wednesday	is	the	third (3rd)	day of the week
4	Thursday	is	the	fourth (4th)	day of the week
5	Friday	is	the	fifth (5th)	day of the week
6	Saturday	is	the	sixth (6th)	day of the week
7	Sunday	is	the	seventh (7th)	day of the week

After this practice, We draw on the left half of the board a table like this and begin a question-and-answer play. We let the students speak and start with the "0"-line. Then the 1st lines below and above 0:

Questions:

- 3	What day	was	three days ago?
- 2	What day	was	the day before yesterday?
- 1	What day	was	yesterday (or: one day ago)?
0	What day	is	Today?
+ 1	What day	will be	tomorrow (or: in one day)?
+ 2	What day	will be	the day after tomorrow?
+ 3	What day	will be	in three days?

Let us pretend, today were Monday, then on the right half of the board we draw the same kind of table and give answers like this:

Answers:

- 3	Three days ago	was	Friday
- 2	The day before yesterday	was	Saturday
- 1	Yesterday (or: one day ago)	was	Sunday
0	Today	is	Monday
+ 1	Tomorrow (or: in one day)	will be	Tuesday
+ 2	The day after tomorrow	will be	Wednesday
+ 3	In three days	will be	Thursday

Learning Objective: the names of the **days**, word order in question and answer sentences, the **SIMPLE** (Past, Present and Future) **tenses**; the use of "ago" and "in" for a certain position in time!

The students know three tense forms by now: **Present, Past, Future**. The next step is introducing the **Future in the Past**, the **Conditional** with which we describe any kind of **Condition** (including polite requests!), often followed by "if". Mind: *The earlier we learn these 4 forms, the easier are the others!* Make sure that the students know how we use the verbs "**to be**" and "**to have**" by giving examples:

Three days ago	I was	at school	
The day before yesterday	I was	at home	and did homework
Yesterday	I was	at home	and had a rest
Today	I am	at school	
Tomorrow	I will be	at school	
The day after tomorrow	I will be	at school	again
In three days	I will be	at school	once more
Tomorrow	I would be	at home	if I had time.
The day after Tomorrow	I would be	shopping	if I had money.
In three days	I would be	in bed	after the long work.

Three days ago	I had	class	
The day before yesterday	I had	no class	but homework
Yesterday	I had	no class	but a rest
Today	I have	class	
Tomorrow	I will have	class	
The day after tomorrow	I will have	class	again
In three days	I will have	class	once more
Tomorrow	I would have	class	if I were not ill.
The day after tomorrow	I would have	money	if I had a job.
In three days	I would have	a sleep	if I had time.

How quickly and thoroughly learners understand the English Verb system depends largely on a continueing method that teaches all 4 patterns in only one go. Little question-and-answer plays prove to be most successful. Begin with the 4 **Simple** tenses as question and answers (give explanations in brackets only when needed):

Questions:
Where were you (last week)?
Where are you (now)?
Where will you be (next week)?
Where would you be (for holiday if you had time)?

Answers:
I was at home (last week).
I am at school (right now).
I will be at school (again next week).
I would be in Ireland (for holiday if I had time and money).

Make new examples by changing the time words for the **Past**: yesterday, 2 minutes ago, in 2011, the other day, last Friday; (In **if**-clauses of Conditional sentences: "**If I talked, we would get problems**"); for the **Present**: always, every day, ever, never, normally, often, now, seldom, sometimes, usually; (In **if**-clauses of Conditional sentences: "**If I talk, you get problems**"); for the **Future**: in a year, next week, tomorrow. (In the **main** clauses of Conditional sentences: "**If I talk, you will get problems**"); for the **Future in the Past** (also called **Simple Conditional**) I think, probably, perhaps, I believe, presumably, and so on. (In **if**-clauses of Conditional sentences: "**If I had talked, you would be in trouble**")

It is crucial that we continue. We have to learn the **two Aspects** of the English Verb. But many English-teachers do not really know how, since they are not so sure about the tenses. They rather tend to postpone this vital issue for the time being. Let us get on with it.

So let us go over to describe the **CONTINUOUS Aspect** which expresses "what we are doing" **at a certain point of time**. The **Continuous** form is also called *Progressive* form. It is always made with "to be". The Past is always expressed with "was / were", the Future with "will be" (or "shall be" for the 1st Person).

Questions:
What were you doing (when I came in)?
What are you doing (at the moment)?
What will you be doing (in three days)?
What would you be doing (if you were not ill)?

Answers:
I was doing my work (when you came in).
I am doing my work (right now).
I will be doing my work (in three days).
I would be doing my work (if I were not ill).

Time words for the **Past**: when, while, as long as; for the **Present**: at the moment, just, just now, Listen!, Look!, now, right now; for the **Future**: in a year, next week, tomorrow; for the **Future in the Past** (also called: **Simple Conditional Continuous**): (In the main clauses of Conditional sentences: "*If they talked, I would be leaving*").

Let us have a look at the **PERFECT Aspect** and its tenses. When Chinese people translate these sentences "I was at home", "I have been at home" and "I had been at home", they think, they all have the same meaning.

In our perception and feelings, the **Perfect aspect** represents a fact that has been completed. In detail: The **Perfect Present** just has occurred or lasted up to now, we still feel it is "true" at a certain point of time. The event is fresh in our mind. The **Perfect Past** is an event that happened before an other event which happened in the Past. The **Perfect Future** is in use when we assume, suppose or speculate about a possible future event. And the **Perfect Future in the Past** is also called the "**Past Conditional**" or better **Perfect Conditional**" because we use it when we make speculations that have certain conditions connected to it. Often we attach those conditions with the word "if" to it. Here we can see all four Perfect tenses:

Questions:
What had you done (before you began your work)?
What have you done (so far)?
What will you have done (by the end of the day)?
What would you have done (in my situation)?

Answers:
I had eaten (before I began my work).
I have done my work (up to chapter 8 but I must finish the conclusion).
I will have done my work (by the end of the day).
I would have done all my work (if I had no other tasks to do).

Time words for the **Past**: already, just, never, not yet, once, until that day; if sentences: for the **Present**: already, ever, just, never, not yet, so far, till now, up to now; **Future**: in a month, next week, tomorrow, by Monday, in a week; for the **Future in the Past** (In main clauses Conditional sentences: "*I would have talked about it earlier if I had known that*", or the other way round: "*If I had known that, I would have talked about it earlier*")

When Chinese learners hear a sentence such as "I have been going home", they are totally confused as in the Chinese language there are no combinations of the Continuous and Perfect aspects. In fact, the previous explanations for the Continuous aspect, and the Perfect aspect apply together, then we call them **PERFECT CONTINUOUS Tenses**. These tenses are, of course, In **Perfect Continuous Present**, **Perfect Continuous Past**, **Perfect Continuous Future** and **Perfect Continuous Future in the Past** (*Perfect Continuous Conditional*):

Questions:
What had you been doing (since I left)?
What have you been doing (all day)?
What will you have been doing (by lunchtime)?
What would you have been doing (if you had no work)?

Answers:
I had been writing (on my report before i got a phone call).
I have been doing my task (up to now. It took me the whole morning).
I will have been doing my task (for five hours when I finish it).
I would have been going to the beach (if I had no work).

Time words for the **Past**: for, since, the whole day, all day; for the **Present**: all day, for 4 years, since 1999, how long?, the whole week; for the **Future**: for ..., the last couple of hours, all day long, "For five minutes," "for two weeks," and "since Friday"; for the **Future in the Past** (In Conditional sentences "*I would have been talking about it earlier if I had known that*", or the other way round: "*If I had known that, I would have been talking about it earlier*")

Objective: Learning that **Present, Past, Future**, and **Future in the Past** are only different variations of the same theme: the **Simple** tenses, the **Continuous** tenses, the **Perfect** tenses, the **Perfect Continuous** tenses. Students must learn all these 16 forms of the **Active Voice** right from the start of any English lesson because the other 16 forms of the **Passive Voice** are based on them!

These "if"-sentences are all made in the same manner with a comma.

"If I talked, we would get problems"

"If I talk, you get problems"

"If I had talked, you would be in trouble"

"If I talk, you will get problems"

"If they talked, I would be leaving"

"If I had known that, I would have talked about it earlier"

"If I had known that, I would have been talking about it earlier"

We can turn the order of the clauses without changing the meaning:

" we would get problems If I talked"

" you get problems If I talk"

... and so on. These forms do not need a comma.

Arrange A Complete Verb List With The Henfield System

Students appreciate a strict order in a language system. Teaching the English Verb tenses bit by bit over a period of many years only confuses learners, simply because they cannot gain a complete overview of that what awaits them. Consequence: They will never get it right. Please give them the chance to learn all forms of the English Verb tenses in only one lesson. It takes just half an hour!

First, we choose a Verb that has a lot of irregular forms so that the students can distinguish the Simple Past from the Past Participle. I always choose *"to drive"*, because it has these 5 forms: *drive / drives, drove, driving, driven*. Write them on the board and begin an *"asking and answer"* play. Ask the students if they know what these forms mean. If not, explain. Ask them to form the present tense with the Personal Pronoun "I". It is convenient. Now ask them if they remember other forms. They might give you a couple of forms such as *"I am driving"*, *"I will drive"* etc. Most student remember no more than 7 or 8 forms.

Now we can begin to teach the Verbs systematically by drawing a table with 8 columns on a writing board. At the very top of the 8 columns we write **1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2** to remind the learner that a **1** refers to a Present form column and a **2** to a Past form column. Then, write under the 1 "Present" as headline in the 1st column and *"I drive"* below it. Then write "Past" in the 2nd column and ask for the Past. *"I drove"* might be the students' answer. Here we can explain that the Chinese Verb has one form only, but the English Verb is always based

on two forms! Explain: *When there is a Present tense (I drive), then there must be a Past tense (I drove, or: I did drive)!* Past, Present and Future tense is a well-known concept in all languages. So we are going on by asking "what will happen tomorrow?" We might get the answer "I will drive". We should state: *When there is a Future tense, then there is a Future tense in the Past!* The Future tense is made with "will", a Present tense form. So the Past tense form is "would". We might here get the answer "I would drive". Keep the following explanation short by stating that we use the "Future tense in the Past" for Condition sentences with "if" (It would be nice if I had some water), and for being very polite as in the request "I would like some water!"

1	2	1	2
Simple Present	Simple Past	Simple Future	Simple Future in the Past
I drive	I drove	I will drive	I would drive

Then in the 5th column we write "Perfect Present" and "I have driven". Remember: *When there is a Perfect Present then there must be a Perfect Past! - "I had driven"* (Column 6), as well as two Future forms Columns 7 and 8)! We should have these Perfect forms by now:

1	2	1	2
Perfect Present	Perfect Past	Perfect Future	Perfect Future in the Past
I have driven	I had driven	I will have driven	I would have driven

With the 4 Perfect tenses we express that something **has finished**, **had finished**, **will have finished**, and **would have finished**.

All these 8 forms are called **"Straight forms"** or **"Plain forms"** (do NOT call them "Simple" as "Simple" is an Aspect opposed to the "Perfect" Aspect!). Now we explain to the student: *When there is a*

Straight form, then *there must be a Continuous form too*, because the English Verb is “based on 2”! We now work out the 8 Continuous forms in a second line underneath the Straight forms. Begin with the Present tense again and find out the 8 versions of the Continuous form. And this is the result for the 4 Simple Continuous tenses:

1	2	1	2
Simple Present	Simple Past	Simple Future	Simple Future in the Past
I am driving	I was driving	I will be driving	I would be driving

And these are the 4 Perfect Continuous tenses:

1	2	1	2
Perfect Present	Perfect Past	Perfect Future	Perfect Future in the Past
I have been driving	I had been driving	I will have been driving	I would have been driving

“How many tense forms do we have now?” “We have got 16 tenses!” will be the answer of your students. (For 10 minutes you could do some practice in sentence building. Write for instance “I the red car” and let the students fill the gap with one of our tenses such as “I have been driving the red car”)

By now, we have talked only about the so-called “**Active Voice**”. That means, with this form we can say *what I do, we are doing, she does or they are doing*. But, as the English verb is based on “2”, there is another form which is used when something *happens to us*, when we are not the *acting part* but only the *effected part*. These forms belong to the so-called “**Passive Voice**”. Here some students might not understand immediately. This is the time to give them an example: “Last weekend, **I was driven home** by my brother, because I drank

too much beer”. As you can see, the form “**I was driven**” looks almost like “**I was driving**”. We just have exchanged “driving” for “driven”. Having said this, our students instantly realise how the 3rd line must look like: I am driven, I was driven, I have been driven, and so on. We explain: Where there is a Straight (plain) form is there must be a Continuous form too, because the English Verb is based on 2 forms. So we begin a fourth line. “How to build the Passive Continuous Form?” Easy: Again, this form looks almost as the one in the former line. The only difference is that we put the little word *being* right in front of the Past Participle “driven”! This table contains all 32 tense forms we have in English. We must stick to the 32 forms at all times!

Finally, it is time to tell the students that this verb table goes much further and the students might understand quickly its real value when you explain that the word “**will**” and its past form “**would**” can be replaced with almost any Modal Verb (such as “**shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought to, have to, had to, got to, used to, need to**, and even **be to**”) and the sentence form will be built always correctly! Make the students aware of the fact that “will” and “shall” as well as “should” and “would” have the same meaning when building the Future tense for the 1st Person. Using “shall” and “should” is actually considered more correct. Look:

I, we shall (or I, we will)	I, we should (I, we would)
he, she, it, you, they will	he, she, it, you, they would

Now we see all patterns of *drive, have, be* (+ Helper Verbs), *clean* in 4 tables. **Rules of Verb tense Agreement:** The tenses in all columns “**No. 1**” can be used together in the same sentence or paragraph! This also applies for all columns “**No. 2**”. Look:

LORD HENFIELD'S VERB TABLE (THE 32 MAJOR CONJUGATION POSSIBILITIES OF AN ENGLISH VERB ARE HERE DEMONSTRATED WITH "TO DRIVE" IN THE 1st PERSON SINGULAR)

PRINCIPAL PARTS: drive, drives, drove, driving, driven. **DERIVATIVES:** Gerund: driving; **Other Nouns:** drive, driveway, driver; **Adjectives:** driving, driven, driveable. **PERFORMANCE:** Transitive / Intransitive

Active Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) drive	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be driving	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have driven	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been driving	
Passive Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) be driven	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be being driven	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have been driven	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been being driven	
Active Voice:	Present Participle: driving	Past Participle: driven	Perfect Participle: having driven	Simple Gerund: driving	Perfect Gerund: having driven
Passive Voice:	Present Participle: being driven	Past Participle: been driven	Perfect Participle: having been driven	Simple Gerund: being driven	Perfect Gerund: having been driven
Active Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: drive	Subjunctive: Past: drove	Subjunctive: Future: should drive	Plain Imperative: drive!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) drive!
Passive Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: be driven	Subjunctive: Past: were driven	Subjunctive: Future: should be driven	Plain Imperative: be driven!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) get driven!

ACTIVE VOICE

			1	2	1	2
			<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
			SIMPLE			
1	A	Positive Statement	I drive (I do drive) *	I drove (I did drive) *	I will drive	I would drive
	B	Negative Statement	I do not drive	I did not drive	I will not drive	I would not drive
	A	Positive Question	Do I drive?	Did I drive?	Will I drive?	Would I drive?
	B	Negative Question	Do I not drive?	Did I not drive?	Will I not drive?	Would I not drive?

			1	2	1	2
			<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
			PERFECT			
1	A	Positive Statement	I have driven	I had driven	I will have driven	I would have driven
	B	Negative Statement	I have not driven	I had not driven	I will not have driven	I would not have driven
	A	Positive Question	Have I driven?	Had I driven?	Will I have driven?	Would I have driven?
	B	Negative Question	Have I not driven?	Had I not driven?	Will I not have driven?	Would I not have driven?

			1	2	1	2
			<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
			SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
2	A	Positive Statement	I am driving	I was driving	I will be driving	I would be driving
	B	Negative Statement	I am not driving	I was not driving	I will not be driving	I would not be driving
	A	Positive Question	Am I driving?	Was I driving?	Will I be driving?	Would I be driving?
	B	Negative Question	Am I not driving?	Was I not driving?	Will I not be driving?	Would I not be driving?

PASSIVE VOICE

			1	2	1	2
			<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
			PERFECT			
1	A	Positive Statement	I have been driven	I had been driven	I will have been driven	I would have been driven
	B	Negative Statement	I have not been driven	I had not been driven	I will not have been driven	I would not have been driven
	A	Positive Question	Have I been driven?	Had I been driven?	Will I have been driven?	Would I have been driven?
	B	Negative Question	Have I not been driven?	Had I not been driven?	Will I not have been driven?	Would I not have been driven?

			1	2	1	2
			<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
			SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
2	A	Positive Statement	I am being driven	I was being driven	I will be being driven	I would be being driven
	B	Negative Statement	I am not being driven	I was not being driven	I will not be being driven	I would not be being driven
	A	Positive Question	Am I being driven?	Was I being driven?	Will I be being driven?	Would I be being driven?
	B	Negative Question	Am I not being driven?	Was I not being driven?	Will I not be being driven?	Would I not be being driven?

			1	2	1	2
			<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
			PERFECT CONTINUOUS			
2	A	Positive Statement	I have been being driven	I had been being driven	I will have been being driven	I would have been being driven
	B	Negative Statement	I have not been being driven	I had not been being driven	I will not have been being driven	I would not have been being driven
	A	Positive Question	Have I been being driven?	Had I been being driven?	Will I have been being driven?	Would I have been being driven?
	B	Negative Question	Have I not been being driven?	Had I not been being driven?	Will I not have been being driven?	Would I not have been being driven?

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LORD HENFIELD'S VERB TABLE (THE 32 MAJOR CONJUGATION POSSIBILITIES OF AN ENGLISH VERB ARE HERE DEMONSTRATED WITH "TO HAVE" IN THE 1st PERSON SINGULAR)

PRINCIPAL PARTS: have, (thou hast*), has (he hath*), had (thou hadst*, he hadth*), having, had (*ancient forms). **CONTRACTIONS:** I've = I have, he's = he has, she's = she has, he'd = he had, she'd = she had; haven't, hasn't, hadn't; **PERFORMANCE:** Transitive / Intransitive
DERIVATIVES: Nouns: (the) haves, (the) have-nots. (*poetic forms 2nd and 3rd Pers. Sing.); **HELPER AND MODAL VERBS:** be (am, is, are; was, were), been, being; have had; do, did; will, would; shall, should; can, could; may, might; must; ought (to); get, got; need; dare

Active Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) have	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be having	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have had	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been having	
Passive Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) be had	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be being had	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have been had	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been being had	
Active Voice:	Present Participle: having	Past Participle: had	Perfect Participle: having cleaned	Simple Gerund: having	Perfect Gerund: having had
Passive Voice:	Present Participle: being had	Past Participle: been had	Perfect Participle: having been cleaned	Simple Gerund: being had	Perfect Gerund: having been had
Active Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: have	Subjunctive: Past: had	Subjunctive: Future: should have	Plain Imperative: have!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) have!
Passive Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: be had	Subjunctive: Past: were had	Subjunctive: Future: should be had	Plain Imperative: be had!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) get had!

ACTIVE VOICE

		1	2	1	2
		<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
		SIMPLE			
1	A Positive Statement	I have * I do have **	I had * I did have **	I will have I am going to have *	I would have
	B Negative Statement	I have not * I do not have **	I had not * I did not have **	I will not have I am not going to have *	I would not have
	A Positive Question	Have I? * Do I have? **	Had I? * Did I have? **	Will I have? Am I going to have? *	Would I have?
	B Negative Question	Have I not? * Do I not have? **	Had I not? * Did I not have? **	Will I not have? Am I not going to have? *	Would I not have?

		SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
2	A Positive Statement	I am having	I was (were *) having	I will be having	I would be having
	B Negative Statement	I am not having	I was (were *) not having	I will not be having	I would not be having
	A Positive Question	Am I having?	Was (were *) I having?	Will I be having?	Would I be having?
	B Negative Question	Am I not having?	Was (were *) I not having?	Will I not be having?	Would I not be having?

1		2		1		2	
<i>Present tense</i>		<i>Past tense</i>		<i>Future tense</i>		<i>Future tense in the Past</i>	
PERFECT							
I have had		I had had		I will have had		I would have had	
<i>I have not had</i>		<i>I had not had</i>		<i>I will not have had</i>		<i>I would not have had</i>	
Have I had?		Had I had?		Will I have had?		Would I have had?	
<i>Have I not had?</i>		<i>Had I not had?</i>		<i>Will I not have had?</i>		<i>Would I not have had?</i>	

PERFECT CONTINUOUS			
I have been having	I had been having	I will have been having	I would have been having
<i>I have not been having</i>	<i>I had not been having</i>	<i>I will not have been having</i>	<i>I would not have been having</i>
Have I been having?	Had I been having?	Shall I have been having?	Should I have been having?
<i>Have I not been having?</i>	<i>Had I not been having?</i>	<i>Shall I not have been having?</i>	<i>Should I not have been having?</i>

PASSIVE VOICE

		1	2	1	2
		<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
		SIMPLE			
1	A Positive Statement	I am had	I was (were *) had	I will be had	I would be had
	B Negative Statement	I am not had	I was (were *) not had	I will not be had	I would not be had
	A Positive Question	Am I had?	Was (were *) I had?	Will I be had?	Would I be had?
	B Negative Question	Am I not had?	Was (were *) I not had?	Will I not be had?	Would I not be had?

		SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
2	A Positive Statement	I am being had	I was (were *) being had	I will be being had	I would be being had
	B Negative Statement	I am not being had	I was (were *) not being had	I will not be being had	I would not be being had
	A Positive Question	Am I being had?	Was (were *) I being had?	Will I be being had?	Would I be being had?
	B Negative Question	Am I not being had?	Was (were *) I not being had?	Will I not be being had?	Would I not be being had?

1		2		1		2	
PERFECT							
I have been had		I had been had		I will have been had		I would have been had	
<i>I have not been had</i>		<i>I had not been had</i>		<i>I will not have been had</i>		<i>I would not have been had</i>	
Have I been had?		Had I been had?		Will I have been had?		Would I have been had?	
<i>Have I not been had?</i>		<i>Had I not been had?</i>		<i>Will I not have been had?</i>		<i>Would I not have been had?</i>	

PERFECT CONTINUOUS			
I have been being had	I had been being had	I will have been being had	I would have been being had
<i>I have not been being had</i>	<i>I had not been being had</i>	<i>I will not have been being had</i>	<i>I would not have been being had</i>
Have I been being had?	Had I been being had?	Will I have been being had?	Would I have been being had?
<i>Have I not been being had?</i>	<i>Had I not been being had?</i>	<i>Will I not have been being had?</i>	<i>Would I not have been being had?</i>

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LORD HENFIELD'S VERB TABLE (MAJOR CONJUGATION POSSIBILITIES OF THE ENGLISH AUXILIARY "TO BE" AND THE MODAL VERBS IN THE 1st PERSON SINGULAR)

PRINCIPAL PARTS: I am, (thou art*, thou beest*), he / she / it is, we / you / they are; I / he / she / it was, (thou wast*, thou wert*), we / you / they were. **DERIVATIVES:** Gerund (Present): being Gerund (Perfect): having been; Other Nouns: (the) living being, (the) human being.

Usage: With "to be" we build the **Passive** and **Continuous** Forms of Full Verbs. This is why "to be" has no own Passive Voice forms! They are not needed. (*poetic forms of the 2nd and 3rd Person Singular).

PROPERTIES:	Active Voice (be)	Infinitive: to be	Perfect Infinitive: to have been	Present Participle: being	Past Participle: been	Imperative: be!	Subjunctive Mood: Present: be	Subjunctive Mood: Past: were	Subjunctive Mood: Future should be
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To Be

	<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
	SIMPLE			
Positive Statement	I am	I was I were *	I will be I am going to be *	I would be
<i>Negative Statement</i>	I am not	I was not I were not *	I will not be I am not going to be *	I would not be
Positive Question	Am I?	Was I? Were I? *	Will I be? Am I going to be? *	Would I be?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Am I not?	Was I not? Were I not? *	Will I not be? Am I not going to be? *	Would I not be?

	<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
	PERFECT			
I have been	I have been	I had been	I will have been	I would have been
<i>I have not been</i>	I have not been	I had not been	I will not have been	I would not have been
Have I been?	Have I been?	Had I been?	Will I have been?	Would I have been?
<i>Have I not been?</i>	Have I not been?	Had I not been?	Will I not have been?	Would I not have been?

	SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
Positive Statement	I am being I'm being	I was being I were being *	I will be being I am going to be being *	I would be being
<i>Negative Statement</i>	I am not being	I was not being I were not being *	I will not be being I am not going to be being *	I would not be being
Positive Question	Am I being?	Was I being? Were I being? *	Will I be being? Am I going to be being? *	Would I be being?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Am I not being?	Was I not being? Were I not being? *	Will I not be being? Am I not going to be being? *	Would I not be being?

	PERFECT CONTINUOUS			
I have been being	I have been being	I had been being	I will have been being	I would have been being
<i>I have not been being</i>	I have not been being	I had not been being	I will not have been being	I would not have been being
Have I been being?	Have I been being?	Had I been being?	Will I have been being?	Would I have been being?
<i>Have I not been being?</i>	Have I not been being?	Had I not been being?	Will I not have been being?	Would I not have been being?

MODAL VERBS

The following Helper Verbs and Modal Verbs are incomplete and have no other forms! General Usage: The Present Tense (*will, shall, can, may, must*) can express intention, and the Past Tense (*would, should, could, might, ought to*) can express possibility, and, therefore, we can use them to paraphrase the Subjunctive Mood. We use *would, should, could, may, might* in polite questions. *Need to, have got to, had better to, dare to, be about to, used to* are Semi-Modal-Verbs, but *be / get used to* is only an Adjective phrase.

	Do	Did	Will	Would	Shall	Should	Can	Could	May	Might
Available Tense	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
Positive Statement	I do	I did	I will	I would	I shall	I should	I can	I could	I may	I might
<i>Negative Statement</i>	I do not	I did not	I will not	I would not	I shall not	I should not	I cannot	I could not	I may not	I might not
Positive Question	Do I?	Did I?	Will I?	Would I?	Shall I?	Should I?	Can I?	Could I?	May I?	Might I?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Do I not?	Did I not?	Will I not?	Would I not?	Shall I not?	Should I not?	Can I not?	Could I not?	May I not?	Might I not?
Substitute	act	Irregular Verbs	shall	should	will	would, ought (to)	be able to, may	be allowed to, can	be allowed to	would, should
Function	is used as an emphasis, can build questions + negations)	can paraphrase the Past tense, and build questions + negations	builds the Future in the 2nd and 3rd Person	builds the Future in the Past in the 2nd and 3rd Person	builds the Future in the 1st Person	builds the Future in the Past in the 1st Person	asks for permission; can express ability, presumption, guess	polite form of "can" for asking permission; can express ability	asks for permission, can express Present Subjunctive	expresses the Past Subjunctive (possibilities, probabilities.

	Must	Ought (to)	Need (to)	Needed (to)	Have (got) to	Had (better*) (to)	Dare (to)	Be (about) to	Be (get) used to	Used to
Available Tense	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present + Past</i>	<i>Present + Past</i>	<i>4 Simple Tenses</i>	<i>Present + Past</i>
Positive Statement	I must	I ought to	I need to	I needed to	I have (got) to	I had better	I dare to	I am to	I am used to	I used to
<i>Negative Statement</i>	I must not	I ought not (to)	I need not to	I needed not to	I have (got) not to	I had better not	I dare not to	I am not to	I am not used to	I used not to I did not use(d) to
Positive Question	Must I?	Ought I (to)?	Need I to? Do I need to?	Needed I to? Did I need to?	Have I (got) to? Do I have to?	Had I better?	Dare I to? Do I dare to?	Am I to?	Am I used to?	Used I to? Did I use(d) to?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Must I not?	Ought I not (to)?	Need I not to? Do I not need to?	Needed I not to? Did I not need to?	Have I got not to? Do I not have (got) to?	Had I not better?	Dare I not to? Do I not dare to?	Am I not to?	Am I not used to?	Used I not to? Did I not use(d) to?
Substitute	have to, have got to, be to	should	call for, want, wish, demand, require	call for, want, wish, demand	must, have to	should	challenge, risk, defy, adventure	must, should	to be accustomed to be or to do	had a habit or was existent once
Function	can express supposition, obligation, suspicion, but also expectation: <i>He must arrive soon, I think.</i>	expresses duty, obligation, compulsion or prudent expediency or desire: <i>You ought to come next week.</i>	expresses obligation and necessity) "need not" or " <i>do not need</i> " is the opposite of " <i>must</i> "!	expresses obligation and necessity) "needed not" or "did not need" is the opposite of "must"!	expresses obligations or compulsion. <i>I have (got) to get a new coat.</i>	* also: "had best " or "had rather " or "had sooner ": <i>You had better / best go; I had rather you left at once.</i>	takes an Infinitive with or without "to". Does not add -s: <i>He dare not; Dare she come? He dared not.</i>	expresses intention, expectation, obligation. " about " expresses an immediate or oncoming action.	This is an Adjective Phrase! Present: <i>I am used to London; I am used to working; Future:</i> <i>I get used to do ...</i>	Past: <i>He used to smoke cigars once; There used to be; Never/ often/ seldom/ always used to be</i>

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LORD HENFIELD'S VERB TABLE (THE MAJOR 32 CONJUGATION POSSIBILITIES OF AN ENGLISH VERB ARE HERE DEMONSTRATED WITH “**TO CLEAN THE WINDOW**” IN A FULL SENTENCE)

PRINCIPAL PARTS: clean, cleans, cleaned, cleaning, cleaned. **DERIVATIVES:** Gerund: cleaning; **Other Nouns:** cleanliness, cleanliness, cleaning tool, cleaner; **Adjectives:** cleaning, cleaned, cleanable; **Adverb:** cleanly; **OTHER FORM:** cleanse, cleansing, cleanser, cleansing agent..

ACTIVE VOICE

	<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
	SIMPLE			
Positive Statement	Your mother cleans the window.	Your mother cleaned the window.	Your mother will clean the window.	Your mother would clean the window.
<i>Negative Statement</i>	Your mother does not clean the window.	Your mother did not clean the window.	Your mother will not clean the window.	Your mother would not clean the window.
Positive Question	Does your mother clean the window?	Did your mother clean the window?	Will your mother clean the window?	Would your mother clean the window?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Does your mother not clean the window?	Did your mother not clean the window?	Will your mother not clean the window?	Would your mother not clean the window?

	SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
Positive Statement	Your mother is cleaning the window.	Your mother was cleaning the window.	Your mother will be cleaning the window.	Your mother would be cleaning the window.
<i>Negative Statement</i>	Your mother is not cleaning the window.	Your mother was not cleaning the window.	Your mother will not be cleaning the window.	Your mother would not be cleaning the window.
Positive Question	Is your mother cleaning the window?	Was your mother cleaning the window?	Will your mother be cleaning the window?	Would your mother be cleaning the window?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Is your mother not cleaning the window?	Was your mother not cleaning the window?	Will your mother not be cleaning the window?	Would your mother not be cleaning the window?

	<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>	<i>Future tense</i>	<i>Future tense in the Past</i>
	PERFECT			
Positive Statement	Your mother has cleaned the window.	Your mother had cleaned the window.	Your mother will have cleaned the window.	Your mother would have cleaned the window.
<i>Negative Statement</i>	Your mother has not cleaned the window.	Your mother had not cleaned the window.	Your mother will not have cleaned the window.	Your mother would not have cleaned the window.
Positive Question	Has your mother cleaned the window?	Had your mother cleaned the window?	Will your mother have cleaned the window?	Would your mother have cleaned the window?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Has your mother not cleaned the window?	Had your mother not cleaned the window?	Will your mother not have cleaned the window?	Would your mother not have cleaned the window?

	PERFECT CONTINUOUS			
Positive Statement	Your mother has been cleaning the window.	Your mother had been cleaning the window.	Your mother will have been cleaning the window.	Your mother would have been cleaning the window.
<i>Negative Statement</i>	Your mother has not been cleaning the window.	Your mother had not been cleaning the window.	Your mother will not have been cleaning the window.	Your mother would not have been cleaning the window.
Positive Question	Has your mother been cleaning the window?	Had your mother been cleaning the window?	Will your mother have been cleaning the window?	Would your mother have been cleaning the window?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Has your mother not been cleaning the window?	Had your mother not been cleaning the window?	Will your mother not have been cleaning the window?	Would your mother not have been cleaning the window?

PASSIVE VOICE

	SIMPLE			
Positive Statement	The window is cleaned (by your mother).	The window was cleaned (by your mother).	The window will be cleaned (by your mother).	The window would be cleaned (by your mother).
<i>Negative Statement</i>	The window is not cleaned (by your mother).	The window was not cleaned (by your mother).	The window will not be cleaned (by your mother).	The window would not be cleaned (by your mother).
Positive Question	Is the window cleaned (by your mother)?	Was the window cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window be cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window be cleaned (by your mother)?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Is the window not cleaned (by your mother)?	Was the window not cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window not be cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window not be cleaned (by your mother)?

	SIMPLE CONTINUOUS			
Positive Statement	The window is being cleaned (by your mother).	The window was being cleaned (by your mother).	The window will be being cleaned (by your mother).	The window would be being cleaned (by your mother).
<i>Negative Statement</i>	The window is not being cleaned (by your mother).	The window was not being cleaned (by your mother).	The window will not be being cleaned (by your mother).	The window would not be being cleaned (by your mother).
Positive Question	Is the window being cleaned (by your mother)?	Was the window being cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window be being cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window be being cleaned (by your mother)?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Is the window not being cleaned (by your mother)?	Was the window not being cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window not be being cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window not be being cleaned (by your mother)?

	PERFECT			
Positive Statement	The window has been cleaned (by your mother).	The window had been cleaned (by your mother).	The window will have been cleaned (by your mother).	The window would have been cleaned (by your mother).
<i>Negative Statement</i>	The window has not been cleaned (by your mother).	The window had not been cleaned (by your mother).	The window will not have been cleaned (by your mother).	The window would not have been cleaned (by your mother).
Positive Question	Has the window been cleaned (by your mother)?	Had the window been cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window have been cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window have been cleaned (by your mother)?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Has the window not been cleaned (by your mother)?	Had the window not been cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window not have been cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window not have been cleaned (by your mother)?

	PERFECT CONTINUOUS			
Positive Statement	The window has been being cleaned (by your mother).	The window had been being cleaned (by your mother).	The window will have been being cleaned (by your mother).	The window would have been being cleaned (by your mother).
<i>Negative Statement</i>	The window has not been being cleaned (by your mother).	The window had not been being cleaned (by your mother).	The window will not have been being cleaned (by your mother).	The window would not have been being cleaned (by your mother).
Positive Question	Has the window been being cleaned (by your mother)?	Had the window been being cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window have been being cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window have been being cleaned (by your mother)?
<i>Negative Question</i>	Has the window not been being cleaned (by your mother)?	Had the window not been being cleaned (by your mother)?	Will the window not have been being cleaned (by your mother)?	Would the window not have been being cleaned (by your mother)?

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Please let the students do some homework. Each student should make at least 3 tables. Choose the following words and sentences: convince, love, turn (which are regular Verbs ending on -ed) and put.

In a **second lesson** you can let the students practise the “Negative Form” (I do not drive), the “Question Form” (Do I drive?) and the “Negative Question Form” (Do I not drive?) by drawing the same type of table on the board. And in a **third lesson** you can let them change the Personal Pronoun “I” with any other or with names: *“He drives, we drive, Paul is driving”*

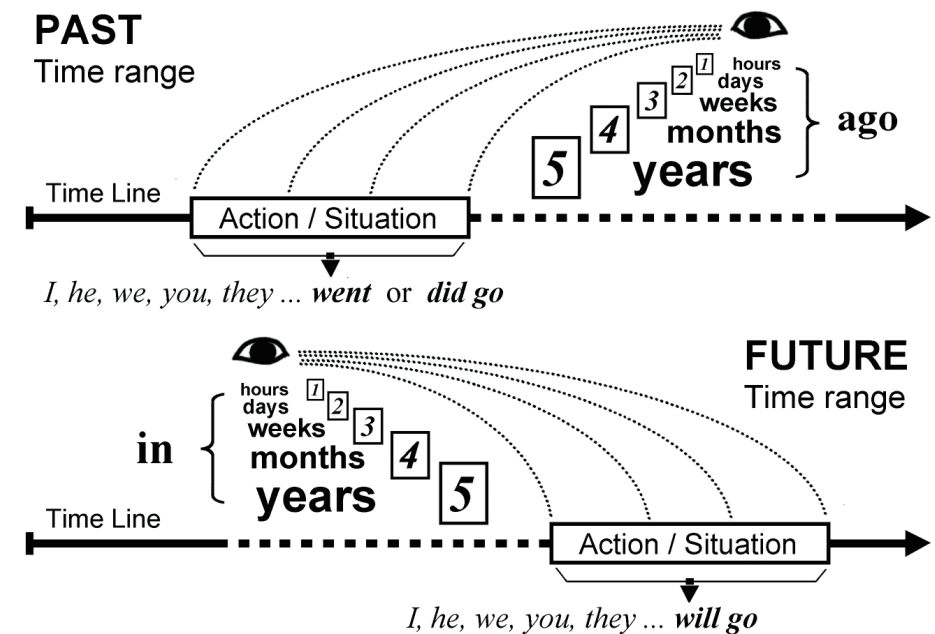
In a **fourth lesson** you can let them practise a “**topic-orientated verb table**”. Take the topic *“my motherclean window”*. So for the Present tense you will have *“My mother cleans the window”, “My mother is cleaning the window”*. Please notice that in Passive the sentence must change to *“The window is cleaned by my mother”, “The window is being cleaned by my mother”*. With this kind of sentence you make sure that each student can make not only the correct form but really understands the difference between “Active Voice” and “Passive Voice”. The Passive Voice is extremely useful as you can leave the subject *“by my mother”* out. In fact, we English speakers use this kind of sentence very often, particularly when we do not want to mention “who cleaned the window”.

Tip: No exercise is more important than practising our verb tables regularly. Choose other Verbs and sentences. Practise questions and negatives. This kind of exercise will save any learner from wasting time and having troubles in future!

The English Verb in Diagrams

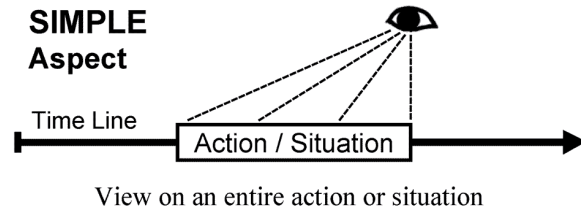
Students and teachers alike are equally horrified when facing the English tense system. They are overwhelmed by all the different Verb constructions. Therefore I am going to start by comparing pairs. Everything I have said in the previous chapters can be shown in a very simple and easy way with diagrams. Diagrams are easier to understand when it comes to the interpretation of a Verb tense.

Even when in the Chinese languages the Verb never changes its form, everybody does understand the time concept Past and Future. These two times oppose one another like mirror images:



LORD HENFIELD'S GENERAL INTERPRETATION DIAGRAMS (The 4 Aspects, each shown with the 4 tenses in the Active Voice: Past, Present, Future, Future in the Past.)

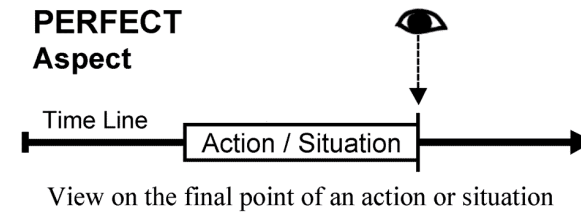
With the **SIMPLE ASPECT** we express a simple fact, a plain statement or just a permanent state which is natural and cannot be changed easily.



The Simple Aspect can be expressed in these 4 tense forms:

2. Past: He **went down** the stairs two minutes ago.
1. Present: He often **goes down** those stairs.
1. Future: He **will** surely **fall down** the stairs next time.
2. Future in the Past: He **would go down** those stairs if the door **was** not locked.

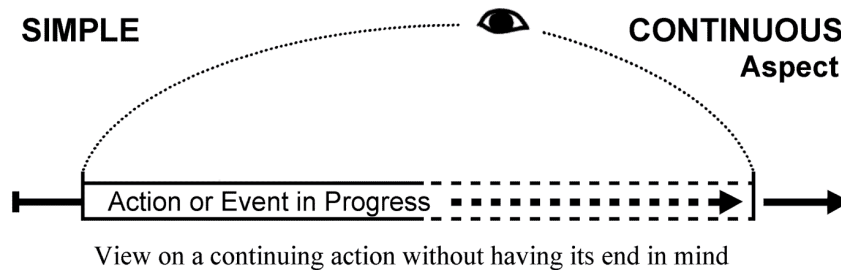
With the **PERFECT ASPECT** we express an action that only has begun in the past but lasted up to a mentioned time. This action or event is still true at that time.



And that time can be expressed in 4 ways too:

2. Past: He **had gone down** the stairs **before** we **came** home.
1. Present: He **has** never **gone down** those stairs (up to now).
1. Future: He **will have gone down** the stairs **by** the time the lift **arrives**.
2. Future in the Past: He **would not have gone down** the stairs if the lift **was working**.

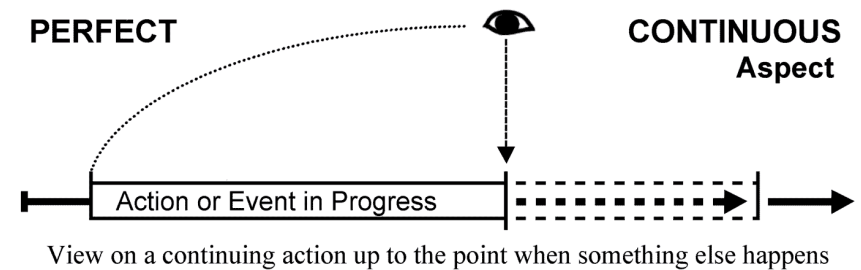
With the **SIMPLE CONTINUOUS ASPECT** we express an ongoing action or a progressing event at any point in time.



These points in time are expressed in 4 forms again:

2. Past: He **was going down** the stairs **when** he **fell**.
1. Present: He **is going down** the stairs right now.
1. Future: He **will be coming down** the stairs in a minute.
2. Future in the Past: He **would be going up** the stairs on foot if we **had** not the new lift.

With the **PERFECT CONTINUOUS ASPECT** we express an ongoing action or event up to (or until) a certain point in time.



And this Aspect is also expressed in our 4 ways:

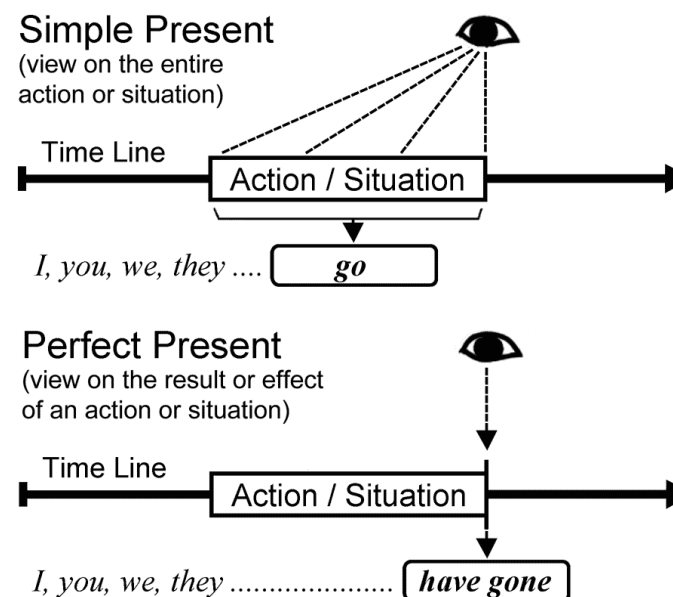
2. Past: He **had been cleaning** the stairs **until** we **came** home.
1. Present: He **has been cleaning** the stairs for ages (up to now).
1. Future: He **will have been going up** the stairs for six weeks **by** the time the lift **is built**.
2. Future in the Past: He **would have been going down** the broken stairs if we **had not warned** him.

As we can see above, the **Verb tense in English is always a mix of 4 Aspects and 4 Times. It is never just one or the other!** We need to see these examples to understand the difference between Simple Aspect and Perfect Aspect. There is one important fact many students and teachers are not aware of: In **English**, there are principally only **two real tenses** in existence, namely the **Present Tense** and the **Past Tense** (the former *Present*). All other **tenses are only constructed variations** of the very same theme: The *Future Tense* is in reality a *Present Tense* expression, because we get conscious of our wishes, hopes and expectations right now. The *Conditional* on the other hand corresponds to the *Past*, because an event that could, would or should happen, but probably never might happen, is already done in our mind at the moment we think about it. That is why we call the *Conditional* also *Future in the Past* or *Past of the Future*. It is very important to bear this knowledge of **Present forms** and **Past forms** in mind because the rules of the **Verb tense agreement** are based on it.

THE 2 INFINITIVES

A fact that might surprise you is that we have **two main Infinitives** in English, not only one! When we look up for a Verb in a dictionary, we will find its base form, also called "the Infinitive". This base form can be used as *Simple Present Tense* without change. In other words: The **First Infinitive and the Present Tense are the same**, because the old endings of the *Present Tense* vanished a couple of centuries ago. (one exception is the Verb *to be* because it has more forms than other Verbs; and another exception is the s-ending of Verbs in the *3rd Person Singular*, which is the last surviving personal ending. So, the Verbs for he / she / it look like this: *She speaks*. *She has spoken*).

The two *Infinitives* reflect in English two points of view or **Aspects**. I shall demonstrate this with examples of the Verb *to go*: The **First Infinitive** "go" stands for the **Simple Present tense** with which we only talk about plain facts. The **Second Infinitive** "have gone" stands for the **Perfect Present tense**, which represents a special Aspect or viewpoint with which we focus on the end or conclusion of an action, event or situation. Let us take a look at the difference between Simple Aspect and Perfect Aspect by watching another diagram pair.



So we can say: "I *may* go – I *may* have gone", "I *shall* go – I *shall* have gone" and so on. (**Please notice that we cannot use either the Simple Past Tense "went" or the Perfect Past Tense "had gone" for building Modal Verb constructions!**)

The 1st Infinitive

I ... **go** . (Simple Present)

I will **go** . (Simple Future)

I would **go** . (Simple Future
Past or Simple
Conditional)

The 2nd Infinitive

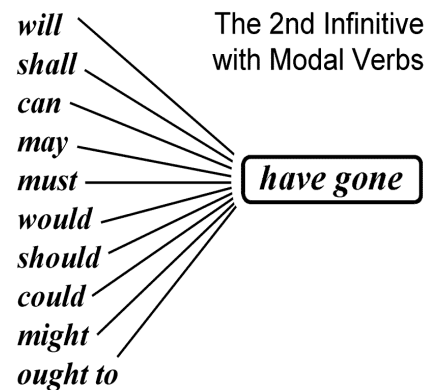
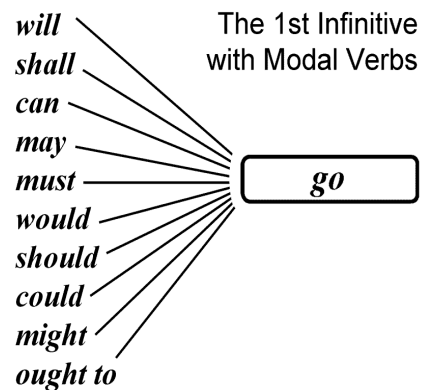
I ... **have gone** . (Perfect Present)

I will **have gone** . (Perfect Future)

I would **have gone** . (Perfect Future
Past or Perfect
Conditional)

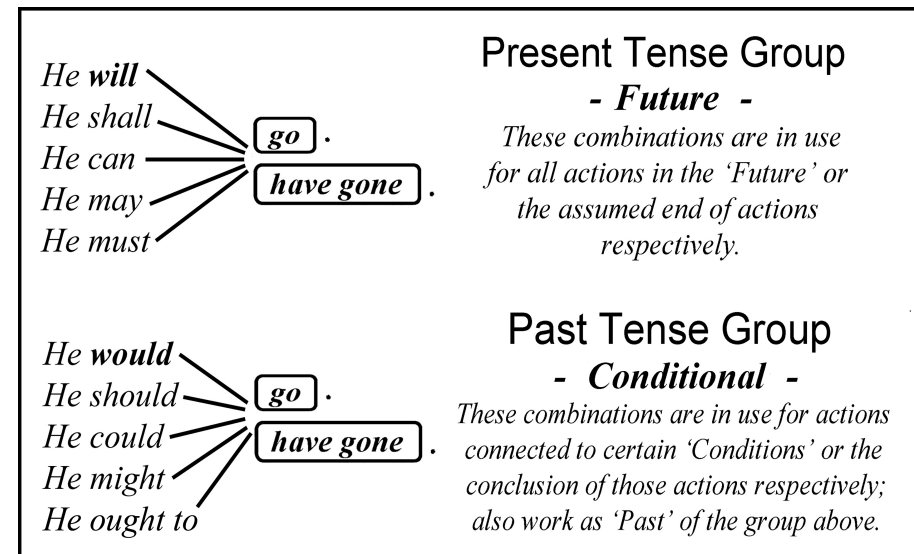
By using the two Infinitives we automatically build two of the “traditional” tenses **Simple Present tense** and **Perfect Present tense**. We use Simple Tense forms to talk about facts or an entire action “We work” (= 1st Infinitive). We use Perfect Tense forms to describe the end of that action “We have worked” (= 2nd Infinitive).

What I show you now may surprise you again: We can put before each of those two *Infinitives* any true *Modal Verb*, and by doing this we can build all tenses, modes (or moods), intentions, objections, obligations and actions we want in a formally correct way. Look:



The above described technique goes much further: As long as we take any *Modal Verb* from the *Present Tense* group - that is besides **will** also **shall, can, may, must** - and combine it with the 1st Infinitive, then we will have made a correct statement in the **Future Tense!** When we use the 2nd Infinitive instead, we will have made a statement that describes the already now expected end of a future action: *This time tomorrow, George will have arrived.*

When we take any *Modal Verb* from the *Past Tense Group* - that is besides **would** also **should, could, might, ought to** - and combine it with the 1st or 2nd Infinitive, then we will have made a correct statement in the **Future in the Past**, the **Conditional**.



In the next diagram we can see the previous two diagrams together.
- **even the Past ones!** - connected to the 2 Infinitives, including the

correct position of the negation word "not":

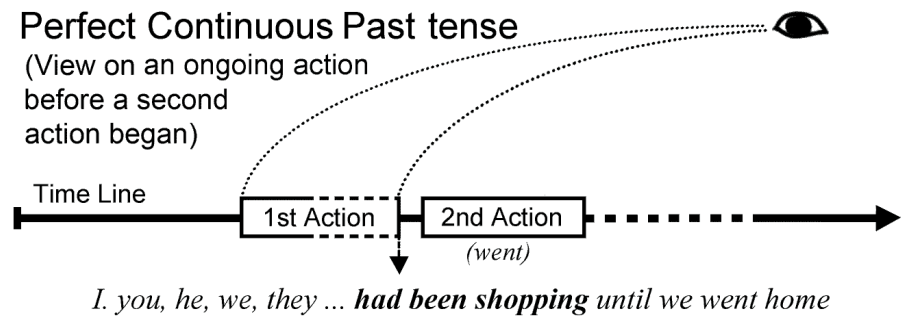
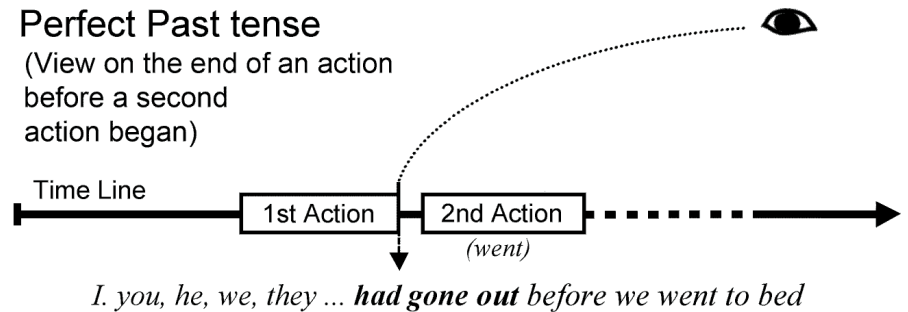
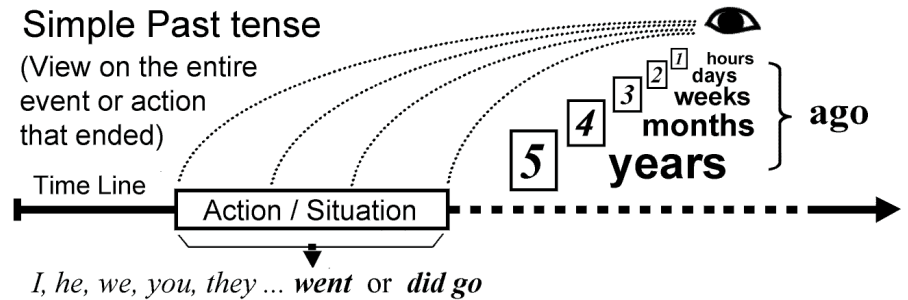
<p><i>will</i> (not)</p> <p><i>shall</i> (not)</p> <p><i>can</i>(not)</p> <p><i>may</i> (not)</p> <p><i>must</i> (not)</p>	<p>PRESENT TENSE INFINITIVES</p> <p><i>drive</i> / <i>have driven</i></p> <p>can be preceded by any Modal Verb</p>
<p><i>would</i> (not)</p> <p><i>should</i> (not)</p> <p><i>could</i> (not)</p> <p><i>might</i> (not)</p> <p><i>ought</i> (not) to</p>	<p>PAST TENSE VERBS</p> <p><i>drove</i> / <i>had driven</i></p> <p>cannot be preceded by Modal Verbs</p>

Notice that "**ought to**" behaves in its own way! Here we also can use these Modal Verb: *dare (to), need (to), used to*.

SIMPLE PAST AND THE PERFECT PAST FORMS

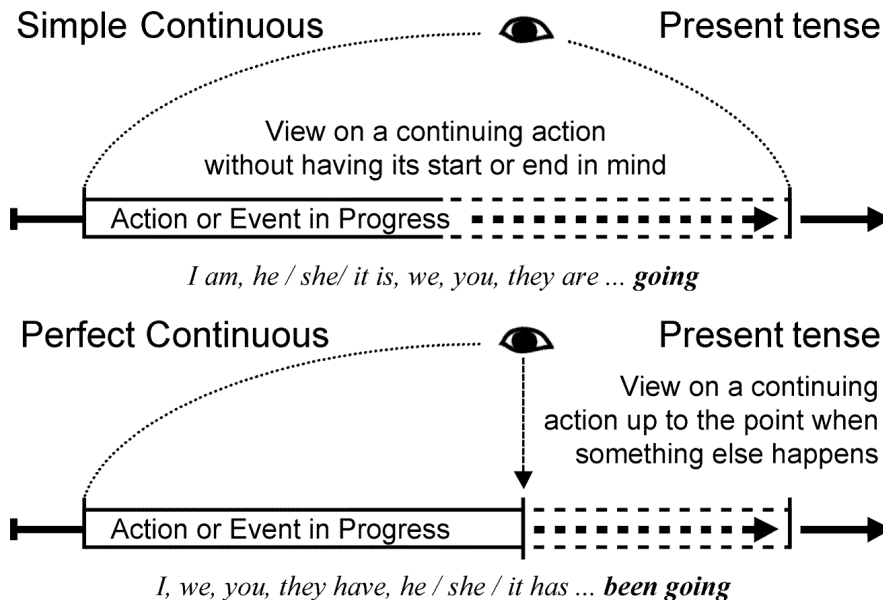
As we can see in the lower right quarter of that diagram, the *Simple Past* and the *Perfect Past* are the only *Tenses* that we do not build with the help of our 2 *Infinitives*. Consequently, they cannot be preceded by any Modal Verb. Basically, these two *Tenses* reflect the same *Aspects* which are represented by the **Simple Present tense** (for plain facts) and the **Perfect Present tense** (for the conclusion of events). This time, however, the entire action or situation dates back one hour, one day, one week, and so on. The entire action or situation comes to a conclusion or end in the Past. Only the genuine *Past Tense* can be represented by Verb forms such as: *had, went, was, did, got, came* (or did have, did go, etc.):

In clauses, we use the **Perfect Past** tense and **Perfect Continuous Past** tenses frequently **together** with the **Simple Past** tense *because they describe an action or situation before another action in the Past - even when we did not mention this "other action"!* Look:



THE CONTINUOUS ASPECT

Strictly speaking, the **Continuous** (or **Progressive**) Tense is not a "Tense" but an "Aspect" (with 4 times) which expresses continuing action, something "going on" or "being in progress" at a certain point of time. There are 2 Continuous Aspects: The Simple Continuous Aspect and the Perfect Continuous Aspect as shown in the 4 General Interpretation Diagrams above.



The *Continuous Aspects* are formed with the *Helping Verb "to be"*. In the *Present Tense* we say "I am, he is, she is, it is, we are, you are, they are" plus the *Present Participle* of the Verb (with an *"-ing"*-ending): *He is working through the holiday break*. In the *Past Tense* we say "I was, he was, she was, it was, we were, you were, they were" plus the *Present Participle* of the Verb.

Some clues about the usage: The *Simple Continuous Present tense* can – just like the *Simple Present tense* – suggest that an action is going to happen in the future, especially with Verbs that convey the idea of a plan or of movement from one place or condition to another: *The team is arriving in two hours. He is moving to Portsmouth this summer*. Because the *Simple Continuous Present tense* can suggest either the Present **or** the Future, it is often exactly defined by Adverbs or other words of time.

Occasionally, the *Indicative Forms* and the *Continuous Forms* (Gerunds) seem to have more or less the same meaning, but have a look what the real meaning is (in brackets): *Will you be visiting him tomorrow?* (= I just wonder) *Will you visit him tomorrow?* (= a request or an inquiry about his intentions). If you want to inquire about a person's actions in the future, avoid the Simple Future, as it will make it sound like a request. The infinitive with "to" and the *"-ing"*-form are often considered identical and therefore exchangeable, or can you see a difference between *"I have stopped smoking my pipe"* and *"I have stopped to smoke my pipe"*? Did you not stop smoking in both cases? Not at all, because the second sentence means precisely the contrary. The *Infinitive "to"* expresses - just like the *Preposition "to"* - a direction, a forward movement meaning *"in order to"*. We can express the second sentence more clearly: *"I have stopped (doing something) in order to smoke my pipe"*. The difference between the two sentences is that you gave in the second one a reason why you have stopped: simply because you want to smoke your pipe now. In the first sentence you gave up a habit. Besides "stop", the word "start" behave in the same way. See *Infinitives* and *Gerunds*.

Avoid the Simple Future if you want to make it clear that the Subject will not be doing something in the future, not because he does not want to, but due to circumstances. Compare *He won't come to my party* (= he refuses to come) with *He won't be coming to my party*. (= he cannot come because he has another engagement). You clearly see: Using the Continuous Form makes your speech friendlier!

Compare another example: *I am sorry, I should love to have a game of chess with you, but I am taking Mary out for dinner tonight*. (this is an acceptable excuse) *I am sorry, I should love to have a game of chess with you, but I am going to take Mary out for dinner tonight*. (this would make it sound as if you prefer Mary's company to your friend's. At this moment, your friendship might just have ended!)

If you want to use a future activity as an excuse, avoid *to be going to*, as that would make it sound like a personal preference at the moment. Use the *Present Continuous* instead, to make it clear that it is something you had already arranged, that you are engaged elsewhere. This would be always accepted. I hope, you have found some valuable clues here and that you make a lot of English-speaking friends.

Exercise for learners: Surely, you will find a verb table with “*Irregular Verbs*” in an English-schoolbook. It has always the same order: **Infinitive** (*to go*), **Past** (*went*), **Past Participle** (*gone*). Let the students arrange those forms in a new order on a sheet of paper so that they have a **ready-to-use list** in hand! It is an effective exercise which you can clearly see in the next list. On the left-hand side we see the traditional forms, on the right-hand side the new arrangement:

TRADITIONAL VERB LIST			FUNCTIONAL VERB LIST		
<i>Infinitiv</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>		<i>Simple Form</i>	<i>Perfect Form</i>
go	went	gone	Present	go	have gone
			Past	went	had gone
fly	flew	flown	Present	drive	have driven
			Past	drove	had driven
give	gave	given	Present	fly	have flown
			Past	flew	had flown
see	saw	seen	Present	give	have given
			Past	gave	had given
write	wrote	written	Present	see	have seen
			Past	saw	had seen
move	moved	moved	Present	move	have moved
			Past	moved	had moved
stop	stopped	stopped	Present	stop	have stopped
			Past	stopped	had stopped
turn	turned	turned	Present	turn	have turned
			Past	turned	had turned

As you might have noticed, the last three Verb examples are *Regular Verbs* which end always in *-ed*.

PASSIVE VOICE

Up to now we only paid attention to the “Active Forms” of the Verb, but there is also a “Passive Form”. What is the difference between Active and Passive? In simple words the answer is: Active means that we are the acting part: *I beat*. Passive means that something happens to us: *I am beaten*. The Passive Voice is built exactly as the Continuous tenses but instead the *Present Participle* we use the *Past Participle*.

As you can see in the Verb diagram down below (which is, by the way, the World's most condensed table on all possible Verb tense constructions), the *Passive* is basically made with the Verb “to be” instead of “to have”. *He has called* (active) - *He is called* (passive), *We have asked* (active) - *We were asked* (passive), *I have finished* (active) - *I am finished* (passive, which means here: *I am tired*). With “to have” we can extent some *Passive Forms*.

CATEGORY:	SIMPLE AND PERFECT TENSES: ACTIVE,		ACTIVE CONTINUOUS; PASSIVE, PASSIVE CONTINUOUS	
SINGULAR: { Simple Present: { you ——— <i>beat</i> he, she, it — <i>beats</i> PLURAL: { we ——— <i>beat</i> you ——— <i>beat</i> they ——— <i>beat</i>	} or { I ——— <i>do</i> you ——— <i>do</i> he, she, it — <i>does</i> we ——— <i>do</i> you ——— <i>do</i> they ——— <i>do</i>		} <i>beat</i> } <i>do</i> } <i>are</i> } <i>are</i> } <i>are</i>	
SINGULAR: { Simple Past: { you ——— <i>beat</i> he, she, it — <i>beat</i> PLURAL: { we ——— <i>beat</i> you ——— <i>beat</i> they ——— <i>beat</i>	} or { I ——— <i>did</i> you ——— <i>did</i> he, she, it — <i>did</i> we ——— <i>did</i> you ——— <i>did</i> they ——— <i>did</i>		} <i>beat</i> } <i>did</i> } <i>was</i> } <i>were</i> } <i>was</i> } <i>were</i> } <i>were</i>	
Simple Future:	<i>will, shall, can, may, must</i> } <i>beat</i>		<i>will, shall, may, etc.</i> } <i>be</i>	
Simple Conditional:	<i>would, should, could, might, ought to</i> } <i>beat</i>		<i>would, should, might, etc.</i> } <i>be</i>	
Perfect Present:	<i>have</i> } <i>beaten</i>		<i>have been</i> } <i>beating</i>	
Perfect Past:	<i>had</i> } <i>beaten</i>		<i>had been</i> } <i>beaten</i>	
Perfect Future:	<i>will, shall, can, may, must</i> } <i>have</i>		<i>will, shall, may, etc.</i> } <i>have been</i>	
Perfect Conditional:	<i>would, should, could, might, ought to</i> } <i>have</i>		<i>would, should, might, etc.</i> } <i>have been</i>	

Just like the *Active Forms*, the *Passive Forms* can take *Modal Verbs* in quite the same way as described for the Active. You will not be surprised to hear that the Simple Passive has also a *Continuous form*. It is easy to build it. Just put the word "*being*" in front of the Past Participle ("being beaten"). The Passive Voice has - exactly like the Active Voice - 4 Aspects and 4 times, that makes 16 tenses as well.

Politicians, business people and news readers use the Passive Form in particular when they want to conceal who the acting and responsible part is. Here an example in the Active Voice: "**She** (or: my mother, he, they, Alice etc.) cleaned the windows". When we do not want to say who it did, we say in the Passive Voice: "The windows were cleaned". By using the Passive Forms we have the freedom to hide the origin of the action like in "The windows were cleaned" or to display it like in: "The windows were cleaned **by my mother**".

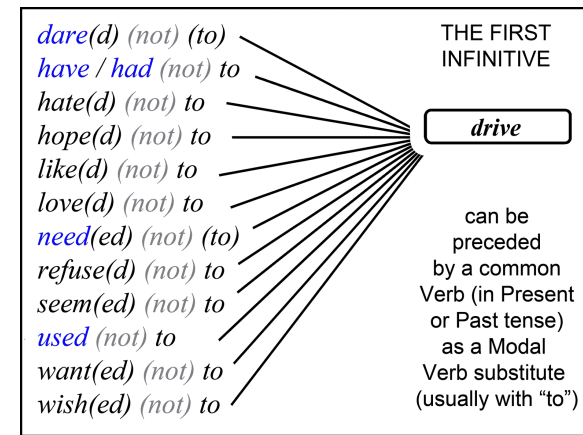
ANALYTICAL FORM OF THE SIMPLE PAST

You can see that the **Simple Present** and the **Simple Past** have 2 alternative forms. One direct form "I beat" and one indirect form "I do beat" with an intensive meaning. The Verb "to beat" is a good example why we use "did" for expressing the Past.

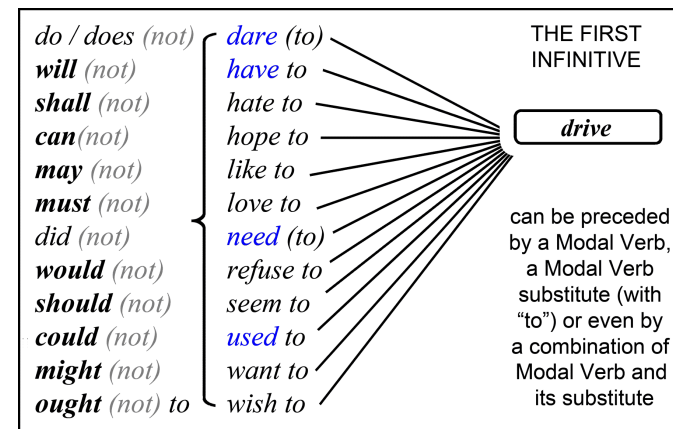
The Past of "to beat" – for example – is the same as the Present Tense form. In order to express the Past tense we must use "did" here. There is no other way. This form also expresses emphasis on the statement in a sentence and serves also as the basis for negative sentences and question sentences: "*I beat*" (Present), "*I beat*" (Past), "*I do beat*" (Present intensive), "*I did beat*" (paraphrased Past).

VERB AND INFINITIVE OR GERUND COMBINATIONS

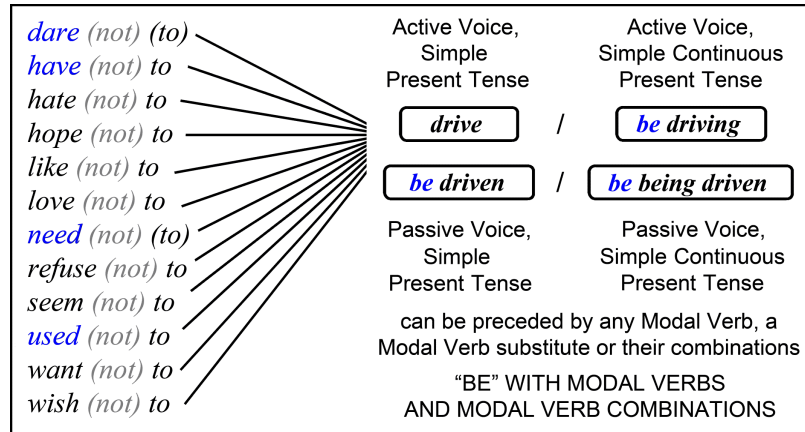
Besides the 10 Modal Verbs, there are a couple of other Verbs that can serve as Modal Verb substitutes. Here we can see 12 common examples. Usually they connect only to the First Infinitive:



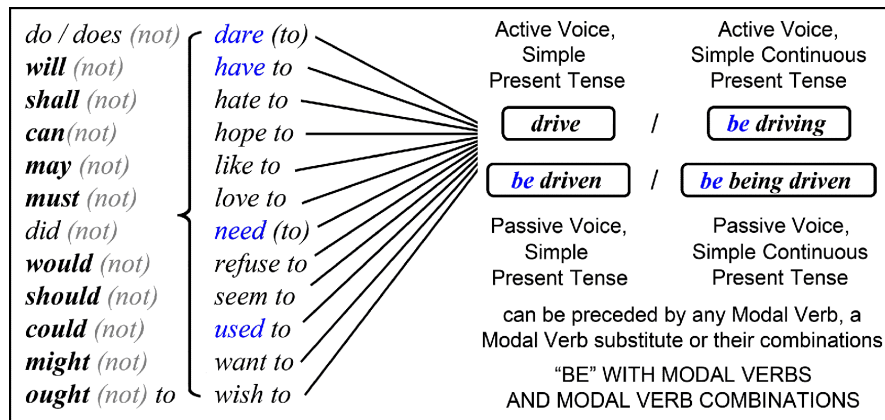
Note: "**dare, need, used to**" behave in their own way. "Two true Modal Verbs cannot directly follow one another". And therefore we use substitutes like this (Even **do, does, did** can appear as emphasis).



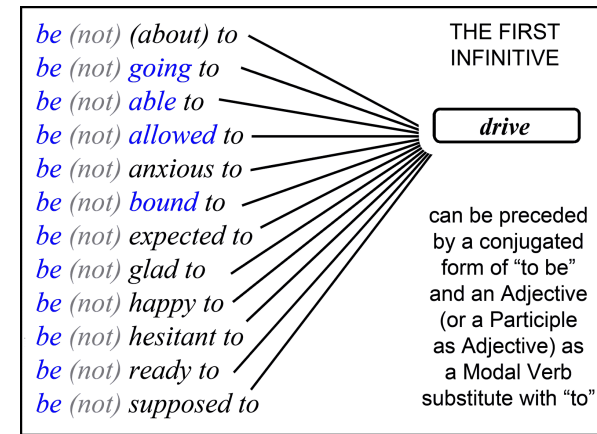
All Modal Verbs and their substitutes, either separately or combined, can be followed by "be" and **Continuous** or **Passive Voice** Verbs. Compare these 4 forms



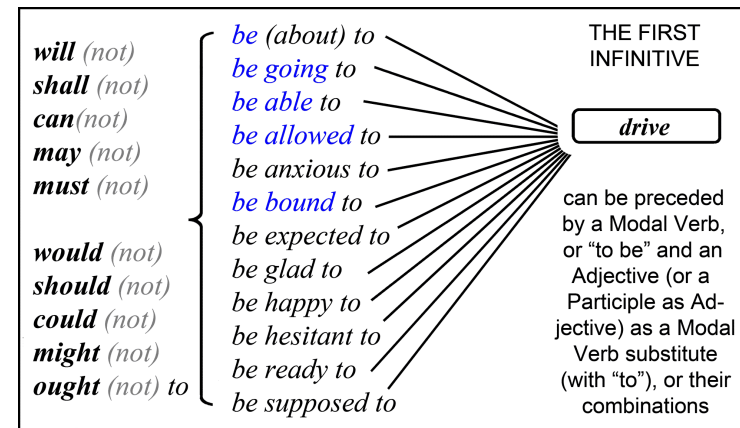
As "Two true Modal Verbs cannot directly follow one another", native English speakers even can make combinations of 4 or 5 Verbs in a row in order to express a certain mode or intention. (Here again, **do**, **does**, **did** can appear as an emphasis mode):



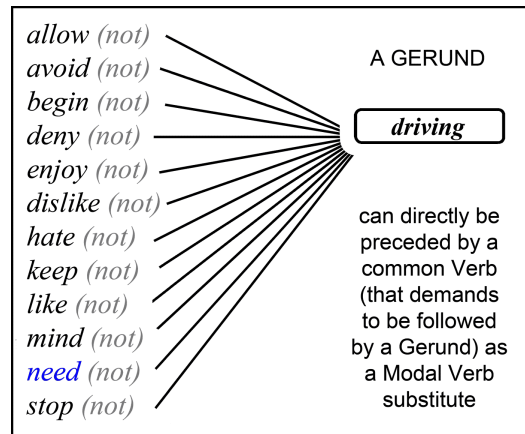
We use the following combinations of "to be" and an **Adjective** or **Participle** as Adjective. We use them in **Simple Future** and **Simple Future in the Past** tense expressions (*I am / was going to drive*; *I am / was able to drive*; *I am / was bound to drive*, etc.):



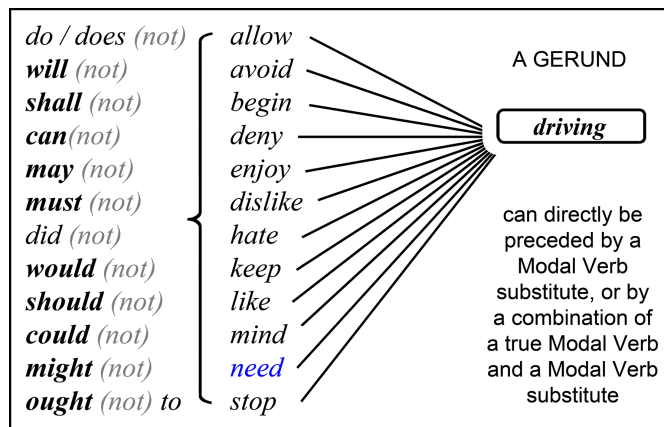
Just as seen previously, the very same combinations can even be preceded by true Modal Verbs like this (*I will / would be able to drive*; *I will / would be allowed to drive*; *I shall / should be happy to drive*, etc.):



We use a Modal Verb substitute together with a Gerund. **Attention:** The position of "not" here is considered old-fashioned (but is used in poetry) and only regularly in use with **dare** and some other Verbs:



Therefore the very same combinations can even be preceded by true Modal Verbs (or by **do, does, did**) like in the following graph. This more common form of negation with "not" and the other Modal Verbs gives us the choice how and in what degree we would like to negate:



SUMMARY ON THE DIAGRAMS

In this chapter, I have shown different ways to explain how the English Verb works. It is up to you, which of those ways you choose to teach. Fact is that the interest of any student is best served when they see all tenses in an entire overview.

Here are some of the most important facts in short:

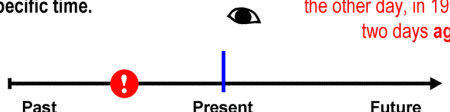
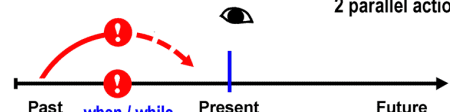

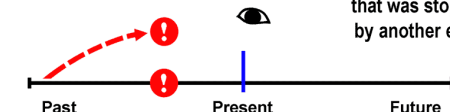
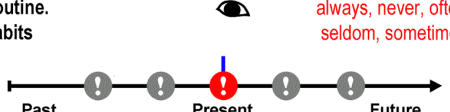
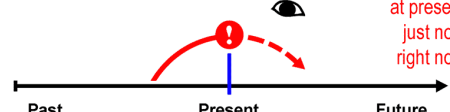
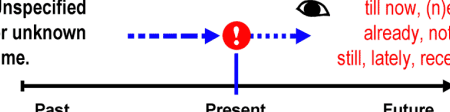
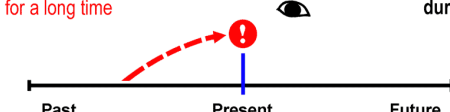
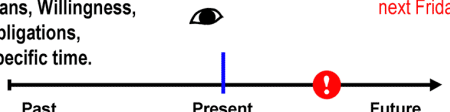
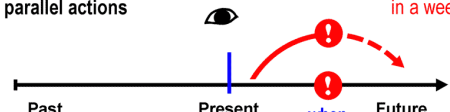
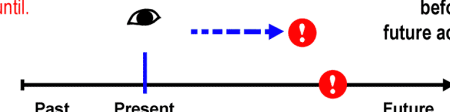
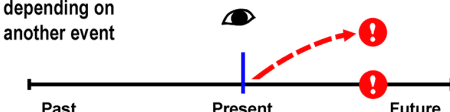
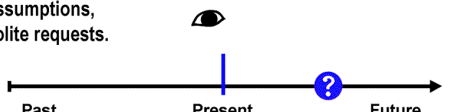
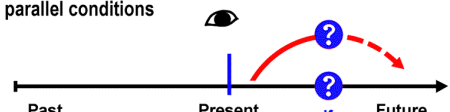
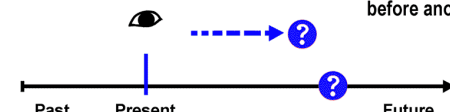
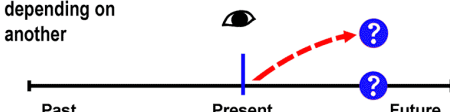
1. The English Verb basically has 2 Tenses: **Present** and **Past**.
2. It has 4 Aspects: **Simple, Perfect** and their **Continuous** versions.
3. It has 4 times: **Past, Present, Future, Future in the Past**.
4. It has 2 Voices: **Active Voice** and **Passive Voice**.
5. It has 2 Participles: **Present** and **Past**.
6. It has 8 Infinitives: **Simple, Perfect; Active, Passive**; and **4 in Continuous**.
7. It has 4 Gerunds: **Simple, Perfect, 2 for Active, 2 for Passive**.
8. It has 2 kinds of Helper Verbs: **Auxiliary / Helper Verbs** and **Modal Verbs**.
9. It can express 2 main Moods: **Indicative** and **Subjunctive**.
10. It can be either **transitive** or **intransitive** or **both**.

With all these components we can built **32 Verb Tense forms**.

All these **32 forms** have to be learnt as early as possible quite simply because they are the must powerful tool any English-user can have!

The following table shows you 16 Detailed Interpretation Diagrams with 32 example sentences in the Active Voice and the Passive Voice (* The "base verb" is the Verb found in a dictionary; the "past verb" ends on -ed if it is regular; the Irregular Verbs are here arranged in a special list, page 321. If you cannot remember the irregular form, go round the Irregular Verb form by using "did" + base verb).

LORD HENFIELD'S DETAILED INTERPRETATION DIAGRAMS (The 4 Aspects in 4 tenses each. Examples in the Active Voive and the Passive Voice, 32 tense forms in all)

SIMPLE ASPECT	SIMPLE CONTINUOUS ASPECT	PERFECT ASPECT	PERFECT CONTINUOUS ASPECT
<p>SIMPLE PAST</p> <p>Finished action, Specific time. yesterday, last Friday, the other day, in 1998 two days ago.</p>  <p>Compose Active: past verb* / did + base verb <i>I made tea / I did make tea yesterday.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: was, were + past participle <i>The tea was made (by me).</i></p>	<p>SIMPLE CONTINUOUS PAST</p> <p>when, while, as long as. Ongoing past action 2 parallel actions</p>  <p>Compose Active: was, were + present participle <i>I was making tea while Susan was watching.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: was, were + being + past participle <i>The tea was being made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT PAST</p> <p>already, before, not yet, once, when. One action before a past action</p>  <p>Compose Active: had + past participle <i>I had made tea already when Bill turned up.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: had + been + past participle <i>The tea had been made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT CONTINUOUS PAST</p> <p>when. Ongoing action that was stopped by another event</p>  <p>Compose Active: had + been + present participle <i>I had been making tea when the light went off.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: had + been being + past participle <i>The tea had been being made (by me).</i></p>
<p>SIMPLE PRESENT</p> <p>Facts, Routine, Habits Frequency adverbs: always, never, often, seldom, sometimes.</p>  <p>Compose Active: base verb* / do, does + base verb <i>I make tea / I do make tea every day.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: am, is, are + past participle <i>The tea is made (by me).</i></p>	<p>SIMPLE CONTINUOUS PRESENT</p> <p>Ongoing present action at the moment at present, just now, right now.</p>  <p>Compose Active: am, is, are + present participle <i>I am making tea at the moment.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: am, is, are + being + past participle <i>The tea is being made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT PRESENT</p> <p>Finished or unfinished action. Unspecified or unknown time. so far, up to now, till now, (n)ever, already, not yet, still, lately, recently.</p>  <p>Compose Active: have, has + past participle <i>I have made tea all day because we have so many guests.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: have, has + been + past participle <i>The tea has been made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT CONTINUOUS PRESENT</p> <p>forever, for ages, for a long time Emphasis on duration</p>  <p>Compose Active: have, has + been + present participle <i>I have been making tea forever. I need a nice sit down now.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: have, has + been being + past participle <i>The tea has been being made (by me).</i></p>
<p>SIMPLE FUTURE</p> <p>Events, Predictions, Plans, Willingness, Obligations, Specific time. tomorrow, in a year, next Friday.</p>  <p>Compose Active: will + base verb <i>I will make tea / I am going to make tea tomorrow.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: will be + past participle <i>The tea will be made (by me).</i></p>	<p>SIMPLE CONTINUOUS FUTURE</p> <p>Ongoing future action 2 parallel actions when, tomorrow, soon, in a week.</p>  <p>Compose Active: will be + present participle <i>I will be making tea when you arrive.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: will be + being + past participle <i>The tea will be being made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT FUTURE</p> <p>by the time, by Monday, in a fortnight, until. One action before a future action</p>  <p>Compose Active: will have + past participle <i>I will have made tea by the time our guests arrive.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: will have + been + past participle <i>The tea will have been made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT CONTINUOUS FUTURE</p> <p>Ongoing action depending on another event for 5 days by the time.</p>  <p>Compose Active: will have + been + present participle <i>I will have been making tea for hours by the time our party starts.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: will have + been being + past participle <i>The tea will have been being made (by me).</i></p>
<p>SIMPLE FUTURE PAST</p> <p>Conditions, Assumptions, Polite requests. if.</p>  <p>Compose Active: would + base verb <i>I would make tea if I had time.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: would be + past participle <i>The tea would be made (by me).</i></p>	<p>SIMPLE CONTINUOUS FUTURE PAST</p> <p>Ongoing future condition 2 parallel conditions if.</p>  <p>Compose Active: would be + present participle <i>I would be making tea if you came round.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: would be + being + past participle <i>The tea would be being made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT FUTURE PAST</p> <p>if. One condition before another</p>  <p>Compose Active: would have + past participle <i>I would have made tea if we had any.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: would have + been + past participle <i>The tea would have been made (by me).</i></p>	<p>PERFECT CONTINUOUS FUTURE PAST</p> <p>Ongoing condition depending on another if.</p>  <p>Compose Active: would have + been + present participle <i>I would have been making tea if we were at home.</i></p> <p>Compose Passive: would have + been being + past participle <i>The tea would have been being made (by me).</i></p>

SUBJECT-VERB AGREEMENT.

Subject-Verb agreement is a fundamental grammar rule in English and a very simple thing, but so many students do not do it right. So I feel the need to comment on it here. This is the rule in short:

1. Certain Subjects (the person or thing doing the action in a sentence) go with certain types of Verbs.

2. For instance, when a Subject like "he / she / it" or the equivalent in the "third-person singular" (such as Nouns or names like Alice, Richard etc.) requires a Present-tense Verb that ends in -s, for example: *the student understands, she learns, it does*.

3. Other forms which are not third-person singular take Present-tense Verbs that do not end in -s, for example: *I have, they know, you learn*.

This is true only of Verbs in the Simple Present tense as the other tenses do not employ the -s at all.

Subject-Verb Agreement with Compound Subjects

It is my experience that students most often fail to follow the rule of Subject-Verb agreement when a Subject is compound (two separate Subjects linked by a Conjunction such as "and"): *"You and Mark learn," "she and I are," "knowing, understanding and teaching represent different stages of learning"*. In this case, because there are two (or more) third-person singular Nouns acting as the collective Subject, the Subject is plural—one and one make two—and thus the Verb does not end in -s.

Even more complex Subjects only make matters worse: *"The various myths of creation found in different societies around the world and their similarity are intriguing"*. Here, the Subject is compound—"myths" and "similarity"—and thus it is Plural. So again, there is no -s on the Verb.

Worse yet, this rule is reversed with the conjunction "or": *"Julius Caesar or Augustus Caesar is said to be the first Roman emperor"*. Since it is either "Julius" or "Augustus," the Subject is singular—one or one is still one—and thus there's an -s on the Verb. When "or" joins a singular and a plural Subject, the Verb agrees with the one nearer to it: *"The Senate or, later, the Senate and the tribunes are seen to have controlled Republican Rome, according to most Roman historians"*. Here the plural Subject ("tribunes") is closer to the Verb and so the Verb is plural ("are"). If, in contrast, the singular Subject is closer, the Verb will agree with it: *"The Senate and the tribunes or, earlier, the Senate alone is seen to have controlled Republican Rome, according to most Roman historians"*. The singular Subject ("Senate") is closer to the Verb which as a result is singular ("is").

All in all, it is vital you make sure that the Subjects and Verbs of your sentences agree. Especially when you write more than a simple Subject, check the agreement of the Verb with the Subject. Remember, this will be a problem mainly with the Simple Present tense. Listen to your common sense. Most English speakers do this by nature correctly. But not always.

Tip: If you are not sure about the agreement, turn the single Object (Republican Rome) into the Subject: *"According to most Roman historians, Republican Rome is seen to have been controlled by the Senate and the tribunes or, earlier, by the Senate alone"*.

VERB TENSE AGREEMENT

Verb tense Agreement or **Verb Tense Consistency** is a rule any English learner finds confusing and tiresome. In plain speech, the rule goes like this: *"When formulating a sentence, you should keep the tense uniform throughout the sentence when discussing things that happened at the same time, meaning, a paragraph, or even the entire writing, should be written in the Simple Past tense only, for example".*

This presented rule is a bit too simple and not entirely correct as it ties down any writer's intention to narrate an event in an exciting and lively manner. The second part of the Agreement Rule is often omitted as teachers and textbooks do not clearly tell that Tense and Aspect are not quite the same thing. I will show you here what this is all about.

First Lesson:

A.) Controlling Shifts in Verb Tense

Writing often involves telling stories. Sometimes we narrate a story as our main purpose in writing; sometimes we include brief anecdotes or hypothetical scenarios as illustrations or reference points in an essay.

Even an essay that does not explicitly tell a story involves implied **time frames** for the actions discussed and states described. Changes in Verb tense help readers understand the temporal relationships among various narrated events. But unnecessary or inconsistent shifts in tense can cause confusion.

Generally, writers maintain one tense for the main discourse and indicate changes in time frame by changing tense relative to that **primary tense**, which is usually written in either Simple Past or the Simple Present tense. Even apparently non-narrative writing should employ Verb tenses consistently and clearly.

General guideline: Do not shift from one tense to another if the **time frame** for each action or state is the same. In the following example sentences, the Verbs with nonstandard or inconsistent usage are shown underlined. Examples:

1. The instructor **explains** the diagram to students who asked questions during the lecture. (**Explains** is Simple Present tense, referring to a current state; **asked** is Simple Past tense, but should be Present (ask) because the students are currently continuing to ask questions during the lecture period.) CORRECTED: The instructor **explains** the diagram to students who **ask** questions during the lecture.
2. About noon the sky **darkened**, a breeze **sprang up**, and a low rumble announces the approaching storm. (**Darkened** and **sprang up** are Simple Past tense Verbs; **announces** is Simple Present but should be Past (announced) to maintain consistency within the time frame.) CORRECTED: About noon the sky **darkened**, a breeze **sprang up**, and a low rumble **announced** the approaching storm.
3. Yesterday we walk to school but later rode the bus home. (**Walk** is Simple Present tense but should be Past to maintain consistency

within the time frame (yesterday); **rode** is Simple Past tense, referring to an action completed before the current time frame. CORRECTED:

*Yesterday we **walked** to school but later **rode** the bus home.*

Another general guideline: We can shift tense to indicate a change in time frame from one action or state to another, but it must be **reasonable** and **logical**! Examples:

1. *The children **love** their new tree house, which they **built** themselves.* (This is a Relative Clause in which **Love** is *Simple Present tense*, referring to a current state; they still love it now; **built** is Simple Past tense, referring to an action completed before the *current time frame*, which means that they are not still building it.)
2. *Before they even **began** deliberations, many jury members **had reached** a verdict.* (**Began** is Simple Past tense, referring to an action completed before the *current time frame*; **had reached** is Perfect Past, referring to action from a time frame before that of another past event; the action of reaching was completed before the action of beginning.)
3. *Workers **are installing** extra loudspeakers because the music in tonight's concert **will need** amplification.* (**Are installing** is *Simple Continuous Present tense*, referring to an ongoing action in the *current time frame* which means that the workers are still installing, and have not finished; **will need** is *Simple Future tense*, referring to action expected to begin after the current time frame (the concert will start in the future, and that's when it will need amplification.)

B.) Controlling Shifts in a Paragraph or Essay

General guideline: Establish a primary tense for the main discourse (a speech or writing), and use occasional shifts to other tenses to indicate changes in time frame.

Hints:

1. Rely on the *Simple Past tense* to narrate events and to refer to an author or an author's ideas as historical entities (biographical information about a historical figure or narration of developments in an author's ideas over time).
2. Use *Simple Present tense* to state facts, to refer to perpetual or habitual actions, and to discuss your own ideas or those expressed by an author in a particular work. Also use *Simple Present tense* to describe action in a literary work, movie, or other fictional narrative. Occasionally, for dramatic effect, you may wish to narrate an event in present tense as though it were happening now. If you do, use present tense consistently throughout the narrative, making shifts only where appropriate.
3. Future action may be expressed in a variety of ways, including the use of **will**, **shall**, **be going to**, **be (about) to**, **tomorrow** and other Adverbs of time, and a wide range of contextual cues.

LORD HENFIELD'S VERB GUIDE
on Verb tense Agreement
in ordinary sentences
(with short explanations):



Simple Tenses:

- Action that takes place once, never or several times.
- Actions that happen one after another.
- Actions that suddenly take place.



Simple Continuous Tenses:

- Action that started before a certain moment and lasts beyond that moment.
- Actions taking place at the same time.



Perfect Tenses:

- Action taking place before a certain moment in time.
- Puts emphasis on the result of an action or state.



Perfect Continuous Tenses:

- Action taking place before a certain moment in time.
- Puts emphasis on the course or duration of the action.

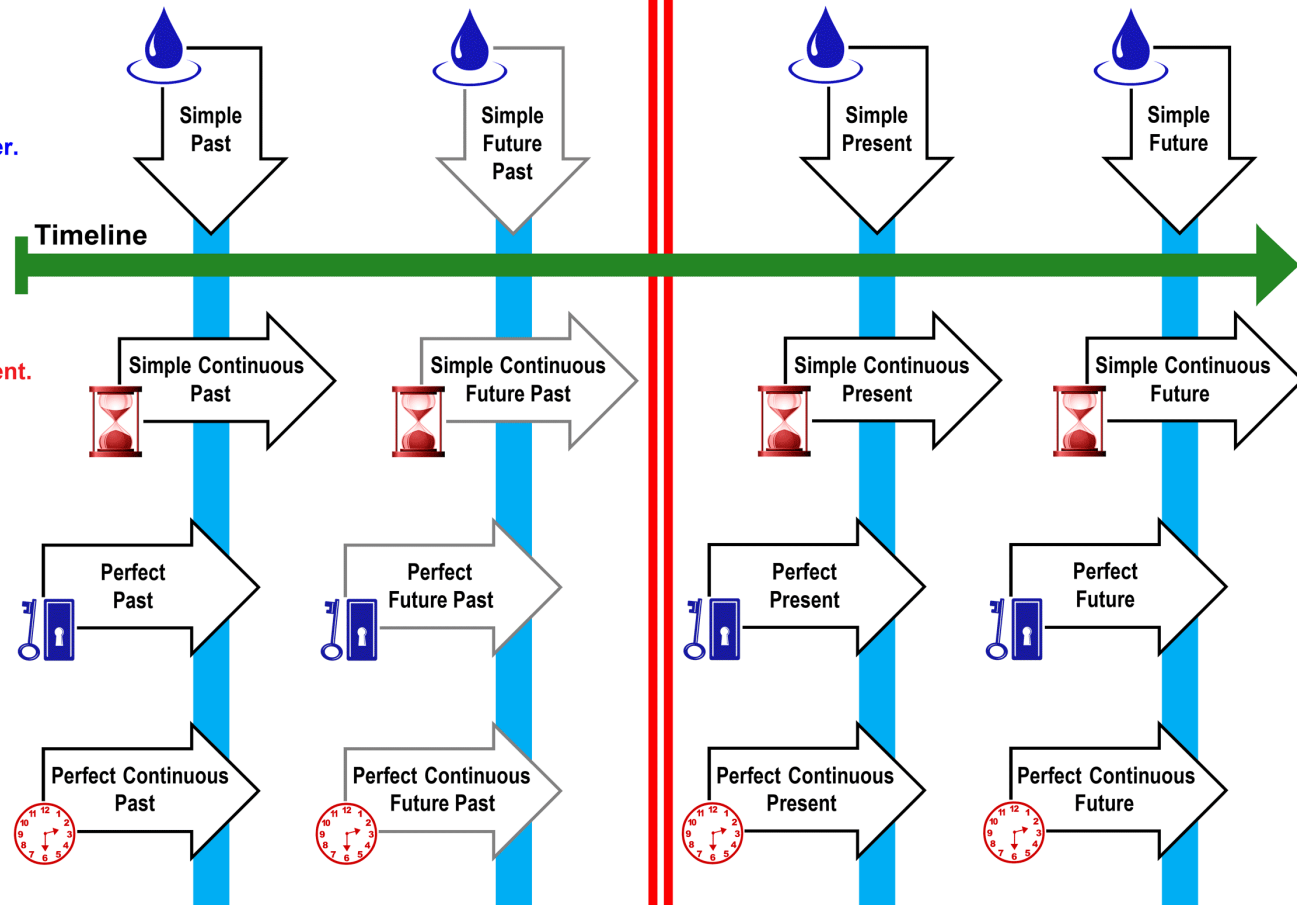
COMMENT on Usage:

The Agreement rules apply for all 16 tenses in the Active Voice and all 16 tenses in the Passive Voice.

THE ENTIRE PAST TENSE GROUP

All **Past** tenses talk about actions or events in a past **reality**.

All **Future Past** tenses talk about actions or events or wishes which are **not real**.



Any of these **Past** tense forms can come together in one and the same sentence as they agree with one another!

Any of these **Present and Future** forms can come together in one and the same sentence as they agree with one another!

Second Lesson: Using other Tenses in Conjunction with Simple Tenses

Example 1: Simple Past narration with Perfect and Continuous elements. It is not always easy (or especially helpful) to try to distinguish *Perfect* and / or *Continuous* tenses from *Simple* tenses in isolation, for example, the difference between *Simple Continuous Past tense* ("She was eating an apple") and *Perfect Continuous Present tense* ("She has been eating an apple"). Distinguishing these sentences in isolation is possible, but the differences between them make clear sense only in the context of other sentences since the time-distinctions suggested by different tenses are relative to the *time frame* implied by the Verb tenses in surrounding sentences or clauses.

On the day in question... *By the time Stephen **noticed** the doorbell, it **had already rung** three times. As usual, he **had been listening** to loud music on his stereo. He **turned** the stereo down and **stood** up to answer the door. An old man **was standing** on the steps. The man **began to speak** slowly, asking for directions.*

In this example, the Continuous Verbs **had been listening** and **was standing** suggest action underway at the time some other action took place. The *stereo-listening* was "underway" when the doorbell rang. The *standing* on the steps was underway when the door was opened. The *Perfect Continuous Past Verb* **had been listening** suggests an action that began in the *time frame* prior to the main narrative time frame and that was still *underway* as another action began.

Bear in Mind: The Perfect and Continuous parts represent Aspect, not just a time. Note that all Verb constructions contain Past elements (had, had been, was). We can use all of them in the same paragraph because they do agree and fit into the **Past time frame!** ("**to answer**" is an Infinitive and "**asking**" is a Gerund. Both can be used unchanged in a Past, Present or Future time frame as they **are no tenses!**)

Here example 2: Simple Present narration with Perfect and Continuous elements. If the primary narration is in the *Simple Present tense*, then the *Simple Continuous Present* or *Perfect Continuous Present* is used to indicate an action that is or has been *underway* as an other action begins. This narrative style might be used to describe a scene from a novel, movie, or play, since the action in fictional narratives is conventionally treated as always present.

In this scene... *By the time Stephen **notices** the doorbell, it **has already rung** three times. As usual, he **has been listening** to loud music on his stereo. He **turns** the stereo down and **stands** up to answer the door. An old man **is standing** on the steps. The man **begins to speak** slowly, asking for directions.*

In this example as in the first one, the Continuous Verbs **has been listening** and **is standing** indicate "action underway" as an other action takes place. The *Perfect Continuous Present Verb* **has been listening** suggests action that began in the *time frame* prior to the main narrative *time frame* and that is still underway as another action begins. The remaining tense relationships parallel those in the first example.

In all of these cases, the *Continuous* or *-ing part* of the Verb merely indicates *ongoing action*, that is, *action underway* as another action occurs. The general comments about tense relationships apply to *Simple and Perfect tenses*, regardless of whether there is a Continuous element involved.

Bear in Mind: The Perfect and Continuous parts represent Aspect, not just a time. Note that all Verb constructions contain Present elements (has, has been, is). We can use all of them in the same paragraph because they do agree and fit into the **Present time frame!** ("to answer" is an Infinitive and "asking" is a Gerund. Both can be used unchanged in a Past, Present or Future time frame as they are no tenses!)

Example 3: Simple Future narration with Perfect and Continuous elements. Let us go even further and imagine a narrative based on a Future time frame as well, for example, the predictions of a psychic or futurist. If the example narrative above were spoken by a psychic, it might appear as follows.

Sometime in the future... *By the time Stephen notices the doorbell, it will have already rung three times. As usual, he will have been listening to loud music on his stereo. He will turn the stereo down and will stand up to answer the door. An old man will be standing on the steps. The man will begin to speak slowly, asking for directions.*

In this example as in the first two, the *Continuous Verbs* **will have been listening** and **will be standing** indicate ongoing action. The *Perfect Continuous Future Verb* **will have been listening** suggests an action that **will begin** in the time frame prior to the main narrative time frame and that will still be underway when another action begins. The verb **notices** here is in present-tense form, but the rest of the sentence and the full context of the narrative cue us to understand that it refers to future time. The remaining tense relationships parallel those in the first two examples.

Bear in Mind: The Perfect and Continuous parts represent Aspect, not just a time. Note that all Verb constructions contain Future elements (will have, will have been, will be). We can use all of them in the same paragraph because they do agree and fit into the **Future time frame!** ("to answer" is an Infinitive and "asking" is a Gerund. Both can be used unchanged in a Past, Present or Future time frame as they are no tenses!)

Why does the Verb **notices**, here in its Present-tense form, does not contradict the agreement rules? The answer is elementary: Because the Future tense parts "**will**" themselves are Present tense forms!!

General guidelines for the use of Perfect tenses

In general the use of *Perfect tenses* is determined by their relationship to the tense of the primary narration. If the primary narration is formulated in the Simple Past tense, then the action initiated before

the *time frame* of the primary narration is described in the Perfect Past. If the primary narration is formulated in the Simple Present tense, then action initiated before the *time frame* of the primary narration is described in *Perfect Present tense*. And if the primary narration is formulated in the Simple Future tense, then action initiated before the *time frame* of the primary narration is described in Perfect Future tense, of course! Thus in short:

1. A primary narration in the *Simple Past tense* corresponds to the Perfect Past tense (**had** + Past Participle) for earlier time frames.
2. A primary narration in the *Simple Present tense* corresponds to the Perfect Present (**has** or **have** + Past Participle) for earlier time frames.
3. A primary narration in the *Simple Future tense* corresponds to the Perfect Future tense (**will have** + Past Participle) for earlier time frames.

The *Perfect Present tense* is also used to narrate action that began in real life in the past but is not completed, that is, may continue or may be repeated in the present or future. For example: "*I have run in four marathons*" (implication: "so far... I may run in others"). This usage is distinct from the *Simple Past tense*, which is used for an action that was completed in the past without possible continuation or repetition in the present or future. For example: "*Before injuring my leg, I ran in four marathons*" (implication: "My injury prevents me from running in any more marathons").

Time-orienting words and phrases like **before**, **after**, **by the time**, and others—when used to relate two or more actions in time—can be good indicators of the need for a *Perfect tense* Verb in a sentence.

1. *By the time the Senator finished* (Simple Past) *his speech, the audience had lost* (Perfect Past) *interest.*
2. *By the time the Senator finishes* (Simple Present: habitual action) *his speech, the audience has lost* (Perfect Present) *interest.*
3. *By the time the Senator finishes* (Simple Present: suggesting future time) *his speech, the audience will have lost* (Perfect Future) *interest.*

1. *After everyone had finished* (Perfect Past) *the main course, we offered* (Simple Past) *our guests dessert.*
2. *After everyone has finished* (Perfect Present) *the main course, we offer* (Simple Present: habitual action) *our guests dessert.*
3. *After everyone has finished* (Perfect Present) *the main course, we will offer* (Simple Future: specific one-time action) *our guests dessert.*

1. *Long before the sun rose* (Simple Past), *the birds had arrived* (Perfect Past) *at the feeder.*
2. *Long before the sun rises* (Simple Present: habitual action), *the birds have arrived* (Perfect Present) *at the feeder.*
3. *Long before the sun rises* (Simple Present: suggesting future time), *the birds will have arrived* (Perfect Future) *at the feeder.*

Summary: There are only 2 real tenses in English: Present and Past. Use either all Present forms together or all Past forms, regardless what Aspect they are in, and you cannot do wrong. Remember: A Past Participle is just a tool word, not a Past tense!

Meaning And Usage Of The Tenses in Sentences

This chapter will give information about usage and meaning of the 16 main tenses of the Active Voice. Plenty of examples make clear what difference the tenses have and how we normally use them together.

Due to the same tense meaning of Active Voice and Passive Voice. I will show Passive forms only when they have a significant difference in meaning or usage. While the Active Voice focusses on the action of the Subject, the Passive Voice describes an action done to the Subject. Often the doer of the action is not mentioned or known. This is the reason why these forms are so important for politicians, government officials and business people. With this form, the speaker can cover up, disguise and distract from unpopular actions or non-actions they are responsible for. Example: *It is decided to raise the tax on income again* (Your question should be: Who decided?). Another example: *Last night the police station was broken into* (Who did it?).

	Simple Tenses, Active Voice:
S1.	Simple Present Tense
S2.	Simple Past Tense
S3.	Simple Future Tense
S4.	Simple Future in the Past Tense
S5.	Simple Continuous Present Tense
S6.	Simple Continuous Past Tense
S7.	Simple Continuous Future Tense
S8.	Simple Continuous Future in the Past Tense
	Perfect Tenses, Active Voice:
P1.	Perfect Present Tense
P2.	Perfect Past Tense
P3.	Perfect Future Tense
P4.	Perfect Future in the Past Tense
P5.	Perfect Continuous Present Tense
P6.	Perfect Continuous Past Tense
P7.	Perfect Continuous Future Tense
P8.	Perfect Continuous Future in the Past Tense

S1.) Simple Present Tense

We use the **Simple Present tense**:

to show a **fact** or something that is always **true** or **not true**.

Examples:

The heart *pumps* blood through the body.

A dentist *treats* people's teeth.

He *does not speak* a word of English.

Dogs *bark*.

Some birds *sleep* by day and hunt by night.

Money *does not grow* on trees.

for daily **routines** or something done **regularly** or **habitually**.

Examples:

Iris never *works* on weekends.

We *brush* our teeth in the evening.

He *smokes* one packet of cigarettes a day.

She *goes* to church on Sundays.

for an action that is **planned to happen** in the **future**.

Examples:

The train for Birmingham *departs* at seven o'clock.

The meeting *begins* in an hour's time.

The new supermarket *opens* next week.

The match *starts* in exactly ten minutes.

to express **thoughts**, **feelings** and **states**.

Examples:

It *matters* a great deal to him to win the championship.

They *feel* a lot of loyalty to the company.

Jill *doubts* the truth of his statement.

She deeply *regrets* saying those nasty things about him

He *loves* her.

They *are* British.

for **timetables**, schedules, **plans**, and programmes.

Examples:

*The zoo **is** open daily from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.*

*The first flight for London **leaves** at 6.30 a.m.*

*There **is** a television programme at six o'clock about cooking.*

*The weekly meeting **starts** in the conference room on Monday at 2.00 p.m.*

for **sports**, **commentaries**, **reviews** (book, film, play, etc.) and **narration**.

Examples:

*John **passes** the ball to Johnny. But Johnny misses it.*

*She **plays** her role marvellously.*

*The hooligan suddenly **appears** out of nowhere and whacks him with a club.*

in newspaper **headlines**.

Examples:

*PRIME MINISTER SUMNER **RESIGNS**.*

*POLICE **DISCOVER** MORE DEAD BODIES.*

in "**I declare, I promise, I assure**", etc.

Examples:

I declare the debate open.

I promise you, I shall not do anything stupid.

I assure you everything will be all right.

with the following time expressions: all the time, at night, the weekend, every day, every week, every month, every year, in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, on Mondays, on Tuesday, etc., once, twice a day/week, etc.

Examples:

He picks his nose all the time.

Henry often goes to the library in the evening.

My brother never works at weekends.

The flight to Toronto goes twice a week.

for **instructions** and **directions**. (This form is called Imperative)

Examples:

*Mix the flour and water together, then **add** salt.*

*Go straight on and when you come to the first traffic lights, **turn** left.*

S2.) Simple Past Tense

When there is a *Present tense*, there must be a *Past tense*! We use the **Simple Past tense** for events that happened or started and completed in the past and that have no relation with the present.

We use the *Simple Past tense*:

to describe an **action** that **occurred in the past** or at a specified time or the time is easily understood or already implied.

Example: *We finished our final exam an hour ago.* (NOT: We have / had finished our final exam an hour ago.)

Example: *My grandfather played for the Guildford football team.*

Example: *I ate a big spicy piece of pizza for my breakfast.*

for an **action** that **began** and **ended in the past**.

Example: *The dangerous criminal was recaptured after two months on the run.*

to refer to an **action completed** regardless of how recent or distant in the past.

Example: *Johann Philipp Reis invented the telephone in 1861.*

Example: *My brother joined the army as a civilian mechanic last week.*

for an **action done repeatedly**, habitually or at regular times in the past.

Example: *We saw the movie 'Titanic' several times at the cinema.*

Example: *Brian was always a heavy drinker in the old days.*

Example: *He phoned his mother every Sunday until her death.*

for a **state** in the past.

Example: *I felt very tired after a couple of games of tennis.*

for a short **event** or action that comes or follows **one after the other**.

Example: *We looked left and we looked right. Then we crossed the road.*

to place **emphasis** on what we say, especially in **response** to some remark.

Example: *"You did not seem to help much". "I did help to clear the room of all the unwanted things".*

to talk about someone who has **died**.

Example: *Helmut Schmidt was a highly respected statesman.*

Example: *He left all his money to charity.*

in providing details or **information** about events that happened subsequent to **news reports** which, when **first reported**, are usually expressed in **Perfect Present** tense.

Example: *Negotiations with the insurgent forces have broken down. The leader of the insurgent forces blamed the government for the break down. A government spokesman said the insurgent forces made unreasonable demands.*

The usage of the **SIMPLE PAST** tense and the **SIMPLE CONTINUOUS PAST** tense **together**

We use the **Simple Past tense** to show a **complete action** and the **Simple Past Continuous tense** to show an **action in progress**.

Example: *Last night I **stepped** on a snake and it bit my leg.* (Simple Past - complete actions)

Example: *At eleven o'clock last night, I **was looking** for my car key.* (Simple Continuous Past – action in progress)

We **use** the **Simple Past** and **Simple Continuous Past tenses together** to indicate an **action happened while another was in progress**.

Example: *I **was running** away from a dog when I **knocked** an old lady to the ground.* (Simple Continuous Past and Simple Past tenses – knocked an old lady in the middle of running away.)

The usage of the **SIMPLE PAST** tense and the **PERFECT PAST** tense **together**

When the **Simple Past** and **Perfect Past tenses** are **used together** in a sentence, the **Perfect Past tense** is used for **something that happened earlier**.

Example: *He **filled** the case with cartons of orange juice.* (Only one action; a Simple Past tense is used.) *After he **had filled** the case with cartons of orange juice, he **loaded** it into the van.* (Both Perfect Past and Simple Past tenses are used. The action that happened earlier is expressed in the Perfect Past tense – had filled.)

Note the usage:

- a) When I *arrived*, the pet show *started*.
- b) When I *arrived*, the pet show *had started*.
- c) I *arrived* before he *delivered* the opening address.
- d) I *arrived* before he *had delivered* the opening address.
- e) Nobody *asked* any question until he *explained* the procedure.
- f) Nobody *asked* any question until he *had explained* the procedure.

The meaning in (a) is: *I arrived just in time for the show.*

The meaning in (b) is: *I missed the initial part of the show.*

There is no difference between (c) and (d).

There is no difference between (e) and (f).

When one action directly followed another, the *Perfect Past tense* is not used. The *Simple Past tense* is used for both events.

Example: *When Jack saw Jill, he waved to her.* (NOT: When Jack had seen Jill, he waved to her.)

A comment on the Passive Forms

We use the Passive form in any of the 16 tenses when the action is done to the Subject.

Normally, we use the Preposition '**by**' to mention the person or thing that did the action.

Example: *That old mighty tree was once struck **by** lightning.*

When the same Subject is used with two Passive Verbs, we leave out the Pronoun and the Verb in the second part of the sentence.

Example: *The pickpocket was beaten up and then handed over to the police.* (We leave out 'he was' between 'then' and 'handed'.)

S3.) Simple Future Tense

We use the **Simple Future tense** for actions that will happen in the future. How we use it depends on how we view the events are going to happen. The followings show the different tenses used to express the completion of an activity in the future:

The police **will conclude** their investigation of the computer fraud next week. (Simple Future tense)

The police **conclude** their investigation of the computer fraud next week. (Simple Present tense)

The police **are concluding** their investigation of the computer fraud next week. (Simple Continuous Present tense)

The police **will be concluding** their investigation of the computer fraud next week. (Simple Continuous Future tense)

There are certain ways we express the future in English:

1. **Will / shall** (can, may, must, would, should, could, might, ought)
2. **Be going to**
3. **Be to**
4. **Be about to**
5. **Simple Present**
6. **Simple Present Continuous**

A.) Will

We use will in order to:

say something that we are **certain of** will occur in the future.

Example: **A meeting will be held next Monday at 2 p.m.**

say something that we are **not so certain of** will happen.

Example: **I think he will phone me later.**

make a ***prediction***.

Example: **The rain will stop soon.**

state a ***fact***.

Example: **Oil will float on water.**

express ***willingness*** to do something in the future.

Example: **I will help you clear the rat-infested storeroom in a moment.**

make a ***sudden decision*** at the moment of speaking.

Example: **There's a noise outside. I will just go and check.**

give a ***command***.

Example: **You will report to me at eight o'clock tomorrow.**

give an ***invitation***, make an ***order*** or a ***threat***.

Example: **They will invite Professor Duncie to speak at the scientific conference.**

Example: **I will have a double brandy.**

Example: **Give me your wallet or I will slit your throat with this.**

ask ***questions*** or make a ***suggestion*** or ***promise***.

Example: **Will you phone your mother-in-law to apologise, please?**

Example: **Shall we sneak a couple of bottles of brandy through Customs?**

Example: **I will try not to be late again.**

B.) Be going to

Be going to is used to refer to future actions as follow:

Intention or ***decision*** already made to do or not to do

something.

Example: **We are going to move to a new neighbourhood next month.**

Plans or ***arrangements*** for the near future that are made prior to the time of speaking

Example: **We are going to visit the zoo on Sunday.**

Prediction of an outcome based on current situation.

Example: **Look at the overcast sky. It is going to rain hard.**

Be going to and will

When ***be going to*** and ***will*** are used to make predictions about the future, they mean the same.

Example: **He thinks his son's team will win the match.**

Example: **He thinks his son's team is going to win the match.**

Be going to and ***will*** are used to indicate future situations or actions, and they often convey the same meaning.

Example: **My son is going to be ten next month. / My son will be ten next month.**

Example: **We are going to leave as soon as he arrives. / We will leave as soon as he arrives.**

Example: **We are going to the shop when it stops raining. / We will go to the shop when it stops raining.**

When the speaker is absolutely sure about something, he can use ***will*** or ***be going to***.

Example: **I will be at the meeting tomorrow. / I am going to be at the meeting tomorrow.** (When absolute sureness is not present,

probably, might, could, or similar words may be used.

Example: **I will probably be at the meeting tomorrow. / I am probably going to be at the meeting tomorrow.**)

Sometimes **be going to** and **will** express different meanings.

We use **be going to** to indicate a plan made before the time of speaking while **will** expresses a decision made at the time of speaking.

Example: **We are going to visit Jill in the hospital tomorrow.** (When we came to know that Jill was admitted to the hospital, we arranged to visit her the next day (tomorrow) – a prior plan.)

Example: **It is getting late. We will leave now.** (The speaker decides to leave the moment he realises it is getting late – a sudden decision.)

When a decision or plan is made for the distant future, **will** is usually used.

Example: **She will get married in two months.**

Going to is usually used when a plan is made for the near future.

Example: **We are going to visit them again early next week.**

We use **be going to** when there is an intention to do something and **will** for additional information.

Example: **It's their twentieth wedding anniversary. They are going to have a celebratory party.** (NOT: They will have a celebratory party.) **They will invite about a dozen close friends. The friends will include two politicians.**

C.) Be to

Be to (is/are + infinitive) refers to an action that is to take place in the future. It is used for **instructions**, **obligation** and something that is **arranged**. However, other forms of usage are possible.

Example: **You are not to answer any question from any one of the reporters.** (instruction)

Example: **You are to hand this packet over to him before noon.** (obligation)

Example: **The Prime Minister is to meet his successor tomorrow.** (arrangement)

Example: **The museum is to be closed while it is being renovated.** (information)

Example: **The General Manager is to present the report to the board on Monday.** (duty)

D.) Be about to (+ infinitive)

We use **be about to** for an action or event that will happen **very soon**.

Example: **Everyone sits down when the film is about to start.**

Example: **I have never drunk alcohol in my life and I am not about to start now.**

Example: **We walked quickly home when it was about to rain.**

Example: **The audience fell silent when the President was about to appear.**

Example: **When a plane is moved to the end of a runway, it usually means it is about to take off.**

When **be about to** is used with **just**, it emphasizes that something is about to happen when it is **interrupted** by something else.

Example: **I was just about to eat my dinner when the phone rang.**

E.) Simple Present tense

We use *Simple Present tense* for the future when we refer to something that has been scheduled or arranged to happen at a particular time such as a timetable.

Example: The first flight to Rome leaves at 6 a.m.

Example: The train for Birmingham departs from platform 3.

Example: The special sales offer closes August 31.

Example: The new airport opens on Christmas Eve.

Example: The public exhibition of a collection of his paintings ends in a week.

The *Simple Present tense* and the *Simple Present Continuous tense*

We can use the *Simple Present* and the *Simple Present Continuous tenses* for the future.

They have a drinking session next Sunday. (= the drinking session occurs every Sunday.)

They are having a drinking session next Sunday. (= perhaps, not every Sunday.)

F.) Simple Continuous Present tense

The *Simple Present Continuous tense* is used for future arrangements.

Example: I am having dinner with him at seven o'clock.

Example: Mr Lorimer is flying to London tomorrow morning.

Example: John is leaving the company next week after 25 years' service.

Example: We are visiting the York Railway Museum in three weeks.

Example: My brother is writing another book next month.

Present Continuous and 'be going to'

Present Continuous and *be going to* can have same meaning.

a) I am going to watch my favourite TV programme this evening.

b) I am watching my favourite TV programme this evening.

c) He is going to attend a seminar tomorrow.

d) He is attending a seminar tomorrow.

Sentences (a) and (b); (c) and (d) have same meaning. The *Present Continuous tense* and *be going to* describe actions that are planned or arranged for the future prior to the time of speaking. We do not use *will* here.

It is not incorrect to construct a sentence with 'be going to' with the verb 'go'. For example: They are going to go fishing this weekend. However the *Present Continuous tense* is more commonly used: They are going fishing this weekend.

G.) Will / Shall

Will and **shall** are Modal Verbs that are used mainly in the *Simple Future tense*.

Example: I shall arrive before noon. / They will arrive before noon.

Shall has always been used in the 1st Person Singular (I) and Plural (we) but **will** is becoming more common.

Example: **I shall be away tomorrow. / We shall be away tomorrow.**

We use **will** to ask a favour of somebody.

Example: **Will you look after my things for a while, please?**

We use **won't** (will not) to show unwillingness or refusal to do something.

Example: **I have asked the noisy children to keep quiet, but they won't listen.**

We use **shall** when we:

ask a first-person question.

Example: **Shall I open the window?**

make a **suggestion**.

Example: **Shall we go together in one car?**

make an **offer**.

Example: **Shall I give you a lift to the airport?**

ask for **instructions**.

Example: **Shall I make all these payments by the end of the month?**

Will and **shall** are also used to make **predictions** in the simple future tense.

Example: **I think the weather will get colder around the middle of this month.**

Example: **I shall be judged only by God.**

H.) will, shall, can, may, must, would, should, could, might, ought

It is obvious: Particularly in questions, the Modal Verbs *will, shall, can, may, must, would, should, could, might, ought* also refer to future actions.

Example:

Will I go home?

Shall I go home?

Can I go home?

May I go home?

Must I go home?

Would I go home?

Should I go home?

Could I go home?

Might I go home?

Ought I go home?

Each of these 10 different questions demand an answer that gives information about an action in the future!

S4.) SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE IN THE PAST

With the **Simple Future tense in the Past** we express the so-called "Present Conditional" tense, better called **Simple Conditional** as it is **no Present tense** at all. It is used in the **if-clauses** of a Conditional sentence. See Chapter "If-Sentences And Conditional Tenses"!

INTENSIVE FORM OF THE SIMPLE TENSES

This form is used for emphasis and is also the key in negation (with "**not**") and for asking questions. It is formed with the Helper Verb **do** or **does** for the Present tense or **did** for the Past tense, and the base form of the Verb; in Passive, the Helper is **do get** or **does get** for the Present tense or **did get** for the Past tense.

	Active Voice	Passive Voice
Simple Present tense	I, we, you, they do (not) drive; he, she, it does (not) drive	I, we, you, they do (not) get driven; he, she, it does (not) get driven
Simple Past tense	I, he, she, it, we, you, they did (not) drive	I, he, she, it, we, you, they did (not) get driven

Here the very same in the form of questions:

Simple Present tense	Do I, we, you, they (not) drive?; does he, she, it (not) drive?	Do I, we, you, they (not) get driven?; does he, she, it (not) get driven?
Simple Past tense	Did I, he, she, it, we, you, they (not) drive?	Did I, he, she, it, we, you, they (not) get driven?

Now we will see 2 sentence examples in 4 complete Verb tables. The first 2 tables show you a short sentence with "to beat" in which the Verb itself is the complement of the sentence. The other 2 tables show you a longer sentence with "the window" as Object of the sentence. Notice that "the window" becomes the Subject of the sentence in the Passive Voice:

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Adjectives: (very, too) beating, (more, most; not, less, least) beatable, beaten, unbeatable; **Phrasal Verbs:** beat down, beat up; **Phrases:** on the beat, beat about the bush, beat a retreat, beat the bounds.

Active Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) beat	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be beating	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have beaten	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been beating	
Passive Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) be beaten	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be being beaten	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have been beaten	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been being beaten	
Active Voice:	Present Participle: beating	Past Participle: beaten	Perfect Participle: having beaten	Simple Gerund: beating	Perfect Gerund: having beaten
Passive Voice:	Present Participle: being beaten	Past Participle: been beaten	Perfect Participle: having been beaten	Simple Gerund: being beaten	Perfect Gerund: having been beaten
Active Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: beat	Subjunctive: Past: beat	Subjunctive: Future: should beat	Plain Imperative: beat!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) beat!
Passive Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: be beaten	Subjunctive: Past: were beaten	Subjunctive: Future: should be beaten	Plain Imperative: be beaten!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) get beaten!

	THE SIMPLE TENSES	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE	Use and Meaning of the Tense Form
1	Simple Present (other names: Simple Present, Present Simple)	He beats. / He does beat. He does not beat. Does he beat? Does he not beat?	He is beaten. / He gets / does get beaten. He is not beaten. / He does not get beaten. Is he beaten? / Does he get beaten? Is he not beaten? / Does he not get beaten?	Facts (which are either true or not true). Action in the present taking place once, never, or several times. Actions taking place one after another. Action set by a timetable or schedule.
	Simple Past (other names: Simple Past, Past Simple)	He beat. / He did beat. He did not beat. Did he beat? Did he not beat?	He was beaten. / He got / did get beaten. He was not beaten. / He did not get beaten. Was he beaten? / Did he get beaten? Was he not beaten? / Did he not get beaten?	Action in the past taking place once, never, or several times. Actions taking place one after another. Action taking place in the middle of another action.
1	Simple Future (other names: Simple Future, Future I, Future Simple)	He will beat. He will not beat. Will he beat? Will he not beat?	He will be beaten. He will not be beaten. Will he be beaten? Will he not be beaten?	Action in the future that cannot be influenced. Spontaneous decision. Assumption with regard to the future.
	Simple Future in the Past (other names: <i>Conditional I</i> Present Conditional, <i>Simple Conditional</i>)	He would beat. He would not beat. Would he beat? Would he not beat?	He would be beaten. He would not be beaten. Would he be beaten? Would he not be beaten?	Action that depends on another action or condition Polite request or inquiry (enquiry) Action that might take place.
1	Simple Continuous Present (other names: Present Continuous, Present Progressive)	He is beating. He is not beating. Is he beating? Is he not beating?	He is being beaten. He is not being beaten. Is he being beaten? Is he not being beaten?	Action taking place in the moment of speaking. Action taking place only for a limited period of time. Action arranged for the future.
	Simple Continuous Past (other names: Past Continuous, Past Progressive)	He was beating. He was not beating. Was he beating? Was he not beating?	He was being beaten. He was not being beaten. Was he being beaten? Was he not being beaten?	Action going on at a certain time in the past. Actions taking place at the same time. Action in the past that is interrupted by another action. Making polite requests.
1	Simple Continuous Future (other names: Future Continuous, Future I Progressive)	He will be beating. He will not be beating. Will he be beating? Will he not be beating?	He will be being beaten. He will not be being beaten. Will he be being beaten? Will he not be being beaten?	Action that will be going on at a certain time in the future. Action that is sure to happen in the near future. The Simple Future Continuous emphasises interrupted actions. Asking politely about future plans.
	Simple Continuous Future in the Past (other names: Conditional I Progressive, Present Conditional Continuous, <i>Simple Conditional Continuous</i>)	He would be beating. He would not be beating. Would he be beating? Would he not be beating?	He would be being beaten. He would not be being beaten. Would he be being beaten? Would he not be being beaten?	Action that depends on another action or condition Polite request or inquiry (enquiry) Action that might take place. Puts emphasis on the course / duration of the action.

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Passive Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) be beaten	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be being beaten	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have been beaten	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been being beaten
Active Voice:	Present Participle: beating	Past Participle: beaten	Perfect Participle: having beaten	Simple Gerund: beating
Passive Voice:	Present Participle: being beaten	Past Participle: been beaten	Perfect Participle: having been beaten	Simple Gerund: being beaten
Active Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: beat	Subjunctive: Past: beat	Subjunctive: Future: should beat	Plain Imperative: beat!
Passive Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: be beaten	Subjunctive: Past: were beaten	Subjunctive: Future: should be beaten	Plain Imperative: be beaten!
				Intensive Imperative: do (not) beat!
				Intensive Imperative: do (not) get beaten!

	THE PERFECT TENSES	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE	Use and Meaning of the Tense Form
1	Perfect Present (other names: Present Perfect, Perfect Present)	He has beaten. He has not beaten. Has he beaten? Has he not beaten?	He has been beaten. He has not been beaten. Has he been beaten? Has he not been beaten?	Puts emphasis on the result. Action that is still going on. or: Action that stopped recently. Finished action that has an influence on the present. Action that has taken place once, never, or several times before the moment of speaking.
2	Perfect Past (other names: Past Perfect, Perfect Past)	He had beaten. He had not beaten. Had he beaten? Had he not beaten?	He had been beaten. He had not been beaten. Had he been beaten? Had he not been beaten?	Action taking place before a certain time in the past. Sometimes interchangeable with Perfect Past Continuous. Puts emphasis only on the fact (not the duration).
1	Perfect Future (other names: Future II, Future Perfect, Perfect Future)	He will have beaten. He will not have beaten. Will he have beaten? Will he not have beaten?	He will have been beaten. He will not have been beaten. Will he have been beaten? Will he not have been beaten?	Action that will be finished at a certain time in the future.
2	Perfect Future in the Past (other names: Conditional II, Conditional Perfect, <i>Perfect Conditional</i>)	He would have beaten. He would not have beaten. Would he have beaten? Would he not have beaten?	He would have been beaten. He would not have been beaten. Would he have been beaten? Would he not have been beaten?	Action that depends on another action or condition Polite request or inquiry (enquiry) Action that might have taken place in the past.
1	Perfect Continuous Present (other names: Present Perfect Continuous Present Perfect Progressive)	He has been beating. He has not been beating. Has he been beating? Has he not been beating?	He has been being beaten. He has not been being beaten. Has he been being beaten? Has he not been being beaten?	Puts emphasis on the course or duration (not the result). Action that has recently stopped or is still going on. Finished action that influences the present.
2	Perfect Continuous Past (other names: Past Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Progressive)	He had been beating. He had not been beating. Had he been beating? Had he not been beating?	He had been being beaten. He had not been being beaten. Had he been being beaten? Had he not been being beaten?	Action taking place before a certain time in the past. Sometimes interchangeable with Perfect Past. Puts emphasis on the duration or course of an action.
1	Perfect Continuous Future (other names: Future II Continuous, Future II Progressive)	He will have been beating. He will not have been beating. Will he have been beating? Will he not have been beating?	He will have been being beaten. He will not have been being beaten. Will he have been being beaten? Will he not have been being beaten?	Action taking place before a certain time in the future. Puts emphasis on the course of an action. The Perfect Future Continuous emphasises a duration of time before something in the future
2	Perfect Continuous Future in the Past (other names: Conditional II Progressive, Perfect Continuous Progressive <i>Perfect Conditional Continuous</i>)	He would have been beating. He would not have been beating. Would he have been beating? Would he not have been beating?	He would have been being beaten. He would not have been being beaten. Would he have been being beaten? Would he not have been being beaten?	Action that depends on another action or condition Polite request or inquiry (enquiry) Action that might have taken place in the past. Puts emphasis on the course / duration of the action.

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Adjectives: cleaning, cleaned, (more, most; not, less, least) cleanable; **Adverb:** cleanly; **OTHER FORM:** cleanse, cleansing, cleanser, cleansing agent.

Active Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) clean	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be cleaning	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have cleaned	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been cleaning	
Passive Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) be cleaned	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be being cleaned	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have been cleaned	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been being cleaned	
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Active Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: clean	Subjunctive: Past: cleaned	Subjunctive: Future: should clean	Plain Imperative: clean!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) clean!
Passive Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: be cleaned	Subjunctive: Past: were cleaned	Subjunctive: Future: should be cleaned	Plain Imperative: be cleaned!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) get cleaned!

	THE SIMPLE TENSES	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE	Signal Words
1	Simple Present (other names: Simple Present, Present Simple)	Your mother cleans the window. Your mother does not clean the window. Does your mother clean the window? Does your mother not clean the window?	The window is cleaned (by your mother). The window is not cleaned (by your mother). Is the window cleaned (by your mother)? Is the window not cleaned (by your mother)?	always, every ..., never, normally, often, seldom, sometimes, usually if sentences
2	Simple Past (other names: Simple Past, Past Simple)	Your mother cleaned the window. Your mother did not clean the window. Did your mother clean the window? Did your mother not clean the window?	The window was cleaned (by your mother). The window was not cleaned (by your mother). Was the window cleaned (by your mother)? Was the window not cleaned (by your mother)?	yesterday, 2 minutes ago, in 1990, the other day, last Friday if sentences
1	Simple Future (other names: Simple Future, Future I, Future Simple)	Your mother will clean the window. Your mother will not clean the window. Will your mother clean the window? Will your mother not clean the window?	The window will be cleaned (by your mother). The window will not be cleaned (by your mother). Will the window be cleaned (by your mother)? Will the window not be cleaned (by your mother)?	in a year, next week, tomorrow; assumption: I think, probably, perhaps If sentences
2	Simple Future in the Past (other names: <i>Conditional I</i> Present Conditional, <i>Simple Conditional</i>)	Your mother would clean the window. Your mother would not clean the window. Would your mother clean the window? Would your mother not clean the window?	The window would be cleaned (by your mother). The window would not be cleaned (by your mother). Would the window be cleaned (by your mother)? Would the window not be cleaned (by your mother)?	if sentences (If I were you, I would go home.)

1	Simple Continuous Present (other names: Present Continuous, Present Progressive)	Your mother is cleaning the window. Your mother is not cleaning the window. Is your mother cleaning the window? Is your mother not cleaning the window?	The window is being cleaned (by your mother). The window is not being cleaned (by your mother). Is the window being cleaned (by your mother)? Is the window not being cleaned (by your mother)?	at the moment, just, just now, Listen!, Look!, now, right now
2	Simple Continuous Past (other names: Past Continuous, Past Progressive)	Your mother was cleaning the window. Your mother was not cleaning the window. Was your mother cleaning the window? Was your mother not cleaning the window?	The window was being cleaned (by your mother). The window was not being cleaned (by your mother). Was the window being cleaned (by your mother)? Was the window not being cleaned (by your mother)?	when, while, as long as
1	Simple Continuous Future (other names: Future Continuous, Future I Progressive)	Your mother will be cleaning the window. Your mother will not be cleaning the window. Will your mother be cleaning the window? Will your mother not be cleaning the window?	The window will be being cleaned (by your mother). The window will not be being cleaned (by your mother). Will the window be being cleaned (by your mother)? Will the window not be being cleaned (by your mother)?	in one year, next week, tomorrow
2	Simple Continuous Future in the Past (other names: Conditional I Progressive, Present Conditional Continuous, <i>Simple Conditional Continuous</i>)	Your mother would be cleaning the window. Your mother would not be cleaning the window. Would your mother be cleaning the window? Would your mother not be cleaning the window?	The window would be being cleaned (by your mother). The window would not be being cleaned (by your mother). Would the window be being cleaned (by your mother)? Would the window not be being cleaned (by your mother)?	if sentences

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LORD HENFIELD'S VERB CONJUGATION GUIDE (CONJUGATION POSSIBILITIES OF AN ENGLISH VERB IN A SENTENCE AND IN ALL 16 PERFECT TENSES ARE HERE DEMONSTRATED WITH "TO CLEAN" IN THE 3rd PERSON SINGULAR) WITH SIGNAL WORDS

PRINCIPAL PARTS: clean, cleanses, cleaned, cleaning, cleaned. **DERIVATIVES:** **Principal Noun:** the cleaning; **Other Nouns:** cleanness, cleanliness, cleaning tool, cleaner; **PERFORMANCE:** Transitive / Intransitive
Adjectives: cleaning, cleaned, (more, most; not, less, least) cleanable; **Adverb:** cleanly; **OTHER FORM:** cleanse, cleansing, cleanser, cleansing agent.

Active Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) clean	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be cleaning	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have cleaned	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been cleaning	
Passive Voice:	Simple Infinitive: (to) be cleaned	Simple Continuous Infinitive: (to) be being cleaned	Perfect Infinitive: (to) have been cleaned	Perfect Continuous Infinitive: (to) have been being cleaned	
Active Voice:	Present Participle: cleaning	Past Participle: cleaned	Perfect Participle: having cleaned	Simple Gerund: cleaning	Perfect Gerund: having cleaned
Passive Voice:	Present Participle: being cleaned	Past Participle: been cleaned	Perfect Participle: having been cleaned	Simple Gerund: being cleaned	Perfect Gerund: having been cleaned
Active Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: clean	Subjunctive: Past: cleaned	Subjunctive: Future: should clean	Plain Imperative: clean!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) clean!
Passive Voice:	Subjunctive: Present: be cleaned	Subjunctive: Past: were cleaned	Subjunctive: Future: should be cleaned	Plain Imperative: be cleaned!	Intensive Imperative: do (not) get cleaned!

	THE PERFECT TENSES	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE	Signal Words
1	Perfect Present (other names: Present Perfect, Perfect Present)	Your mother has cleaned the window. Your mother has not cleaned the window. Has your mother cleaned the window? Has your mother not cleaned the window?	The window has been cleaned (by your mother). The window has not been cleaned (by your mother). Has the window been cleaned (by your mother)? Has the window not been cleaned (by your mother)?	already, ever, just, never, not yet, so far, till now, up to now
2	Perfect Past (other names: Past Perfect, Perfect Past)	Your mother had cleaned the window. Your mother had not cleaned the window. Had your mother cleaned the window? Had your mother not cleaned the window?	The window had been cleaned (by your mother). The window had not been cleaned (by your mother). Had the window been cleaned (by your mother)? Had the window not been cleaned (by your mother)?	already, just, never, not yet, once, until that day if sentence (If I had talked, ...)
1	Perfect Future (other names: Future II, Future Perfect, Perfect Future)	Your mother will have cleaned the window. Your mother will not have cleaned the window. Will your mother have cleaned the window? Will your mother not have cleaned the window?	The window will have been cleaned (by your mother). The window will not have been cleaned (by your mother). Will the window have been cleaned (by your mother)? Will the window not have been cleaned (by your mother)?	by Monday, in a week
2	Perfect Future in the Past (other names: Conditional II, Conditional Perfect, <i>Perfect Conditional</i>)	Your mother would have cleaned the window. Your mother would not have cleaned the window. Would your mother have cleaned the window? Would your mother not have cleaned the window?	The window would have been cleaned (by your mother). The window would not have been cleaned (by your mother). Would the window have been cleaned (by your mother)? Would the window not have been cleaned (by your mother)?	if sentences (If I had seen that, I would have helped.)
1	Perfect Continuous Present (other names: Present Perfect Continuous, Present Perfect Progressive)	Your mother has been cleaning the window. Your mother has not been cleaning the window. Has your mother been cleaning the window? Has your mother not been cleaning the window?	The window has been being cleaned (by your mother). The window has not been being cleaned (by your mother). Has the window been being cleaned (by your mother)? Has the window not been being cleaned (by your mother)?	all day, for 4 years; since 1993; the whole week; how long?,
2	Perfect Continuous Past (other names: Past Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Progressive)	Your mother had been cleaning the window. Your mother had not been cleaning the window. Had your mother been cleaning the window? Had your mother not been cleaning the window?	The window had been being cleaned (by your mother). The window had not been being cleaned (by your mother). Had the window been being cleaned (by your mother)? Had the window not been being cleaned (by your mother)?	for, since, the whole day, all day
1	Perfect Continuous Future (other names: Future II Continuous, Future II Progressive)	Your mother will have been cleaning the window. Your mother will not have been cleaning the window. Will your mother have been cleaning the window? Will your mother not have been cleaning the window?	The window will have been being cleaned (by your mother). The window will not have been being cleaned (by your mother). Will the window have been being cleaned (by your mother)? Will the window not have been being cleaned (by your mother)?	all day long, since Friday, for ..., the last couple of hours, For 5 minutes, for two weeks,
2	Perfect Continuous Future in the Past (other names: Conditional II Progressive, Perfect Continuous Progressive, <i>Perfect Conditional Continuous</i>)	Your mother would have been cleaning the window. Your mother would not have been cleaning the window. Would your mother have been cleaning the window? Would your mother not have been cleaning the window?	The window would have been being cleaned (by your mother). The window would not have been being cleaned (by your mother). Would the window have been being cleaned (by your mother)? Would the window not have been being cleaned (by your mother)?	if sentences

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S5.) Simple Continuous Present Tense

We use the **Simple Continuous Present tense** to show we are in the middle of an activity that is in progress at this moment. The activity started in the past and will go on in the future.

Example:

I am reading / I am writing.

So when we use the Simple Continuous Present tense we are talking about something that is still not yet finished or complete at the time of speaking.

We use the Simple Present Continuous:

for an **action** that is **still happening** at the time of speaking.

Example:

She *is cooking* a meal now.

for an **action** that is **still going on about this time** but not necessary at the time of speaking.

Example:

Jack *is teaching* at a secondary boys' school. (He is not actually teaching now. He may be watching television or playing with his cat at the moment of speaking.)

to talk about an **action** that has been **planned** or arranged to take place at a **particular time in** the immediate or distant **future**.

Example:

We *are performing* magic tricks on stage in two weeks.

to describe a **situation** that is **temporary** and does **not** happen as **usual**.

Example:

He is usually the hero of the film, but he *is playing* the role of a villain.

for a **changing** or evolving **situation**.

Example:

Pollution *is causing* global warming.

to describe a **repeated action** that the speaker finds **irritating**.

Example:

He *is* forever *making* unfavourable comments about his mother-in-law.

with '**always**', '**very often**', '**forever**', '**constantly**' to describe an action that happens many times or **frequently**.

Example:

My old car *is always breaking* down.

I *am very often going* to my mum's for tea or coffee.

She *is* constantly *reminding* me to pay back the money I owe her.

with **time expressions** such as **now**, **at this moment**, **at present**, **in a minute**, **just now**, **today**, **tonight**, **tomorrow**, **nowadays**, **this week**, **next week**, **these days**, **this year**.

With Simple Continuous Present questions. Example: Is he eating? Is your dog barking at the postman? What are your cats doing in my garden? Am I dreaming?

We use the Simple Continuous Present in the following ways:

Statement: I *am shaving* – we place the Verb to be (am/is/are) after the Subject (I).

Negative: He *is not sleeping* – we place **not** after the Verb **to be** (am / is / are).

Question: *Are they coming here?* – we place the Verb **to be** (am/is/are) before the Subject (they).

Question with a Question word: **Why are** they coming here? – we place the Question word before the Verb **to be** (am / is / are).

The agreement of the Simple Continuous with Simple tenses:

These tenses can follow one another:

*In the evening, she **was** at home. She **was doing** her homework.*
(Simple Continuous Past)

*In the evening, she **is** at home. She **is doing** her homework.* (Simple Continuous Present)

*In the evening, she **will be** at home. She **will be doing** her homework.*
(Simple Continuous Future)

The *Simple Continuous Future tense* and the *Simple Future tense*:

*Will you **be coming** to the party tonight?* (Simple Continuous Future)

*Will you **come** to the party tonight?* (Simple Future tense)

The choir **will be singing** when the bride and bridegroom enter the church. (Simple Continuous Future - The choir **will sing** before the bride and bridegroom enter the church.)

The choir **will sing** when the bride and bridegroom enter the church. (Simple Future tense - The bride and bridegroom will enter the church and then the choir will sing.)

Sometimes there is little or no difference between the *Simple Future Continuous tense* and the *Simple Future tense*:

*He **will be having** lunch with us.*

*He **will have** lunch with us.*

More than one way is possible to express a future action, and often they have similar meaning.

*Some guests **will be arriving** late.*

*Some guests **will arrive** late.*

*Some guests **are arriving** late.*

S6.) Simple Continuous Past Tense

The **Simple Continuous Past tense** is used:

for an action that was taking place in the past when a shorter action (expressed in the simple past tense) happened.

Example: *I **was camping** when I **got stung** by a bee.*

Example: *When I **visited** him in the hospital, he **was snoring** loudly.*

Example: *While he **was reading** the newspaper, he **fell asleep**.*

Example: *While I **was talking** to him, his eyes **looked** somewhere else.*

Note: Here we use the *Simple Continuous Past tense* and the *Simple Past tense* **together**!

with **while** to describe **two actions** that were going on at the **same time** in the past.

Example: *While my brother **was laughing**, my sister **was crying**.*

Example: *My father **was drinking** while my mother **was eating**.*

for an **action** that was **happening** and **not yet finished** at a particular time or throughout a period of time in the past. We do not state when the action started or ended.

Example: *Grandma **was knitting** a sock at 11 o'clock last night.*

Example: *They **were hunting** wild boars all evening.*

to show that we **were** in the **middle** of an **action**.

Example: *I **was collecting** old newspapers.* (I was in the middle of doing the collecting.)

Example: *The police sirens **were wailing**.*

in **Reported** or Indirect **Speech**.

Example: *"**Were** you **catching** a train to Milford, Jane?" asked Frank.*
(Frank asked Jane if she was catching a train to Milford.)

to describe the **introductory** scene for a **story** written in the *Simple Past tense*.

Example: The sun *was shining* after weeks of rain. The flowers *were waving* in the breeze.

Verbs which are not normally used in the Continuous form

We use the *Continuous forms*, both Present and Past, with actions but not with Verbs that refer to **states** and **feelings**. The *Simple Present tense* and *Simple Past tense* are used for such *Stative Verbs*. Some of the *Stative Verbs* include: **feel, hear, see, smell, taste, believe, doubt, forget, know, understand, wish, like, love, desire, notice, remember, and want.**

Example: *I forget your name.* (NOT I am forgetting your name.)

Example: *I forgot your name.* (NOT I was forgetting your name.)

Example: *He believes what I say.* (NOT He is believing what I say.)

Example: *We understood the instructions.* (NOT We were understanding the instructions.)

Example: *Do you hear that noise?* (NOT: Are you hearing that noise?)

Example: *Did you hear that noise?* (NOT: Were you hearing that noise?)

Example: *I understand the instructions.* (NOT: I am understanding the instructions.)

Difference between the Simple Continuous Past tense and the Perfect Past tense

a) I *was eating* when Bob came.

b) I *had eaten* when Bob came.

Meaning in (a): The *Simple Continuous Past tense* expresses an activity that was in progress when another event took place.

Meaning in (b): The *Perfect Past tense* expresses an activity that was completed before another event took place.

The Passive form of the Simple Continuous Past tense

The Passive form consists of **was** or **were** + **being** + the **Past Participle** of the Verb.

We use the *Passive form* of the *Simple Continuous Past tense* to express an action done **to** the Subject. The action must be in the past and must be unfinished at the time concerned.

Example: *My house was being renovated so I stayed in a nearby hotel.*

Example: *They arrived while dinner was being prepared.*

We use **when** with the *Simple Continuous Past* and *Simple Past tenses*:

to show that an **action** or event described in the *Simple Continuous Past tense* **started before the event** expressed in the *Simple Past tense*.

Example: Two women *were fighting* in the street when the police *arrived*. (The fighting started before the police arrived.)

to show that an action or event described in the *Simple Continuous Past tense* **was going on** when the event expressed in the *Simple Past tense* took place.

Example: They *were having* a barbecue when the rain *started falling*. (The rain fell when the barbecue was in progress.)

to show **time order** of events.

Example: *When I woke up, my brother was brushing his teeth.* (I woke up during his brushing his teeth.)

Example: *When I woke up, my brother brushed his teeth.* (I woke up, then my brother brushed his teeth.)

Example: *He was bathing his pet puppy when I visited him.* (He started the bathing before my visit and the bathing was in progress at the time of my visit.)

Example: *He bathed his pet puppy when I visited him.* (Two complete events: I visited him and then he bathed his pet.)

Difference in time order between Simple Continuous Past and Simple Past tense.

1) When we *reached* there, it *rained*.

2) When we *reached* there, it *was raining*.

Meaning in (1), reaching there then raining started.

Meaning in (2), reaching there when it was raining.

Note the differences between these sentences:

Example: He *was writing* a letter yesterday. (Letter was not finished yesterday.)

Example: He *wrote* a letter yesterday. (Completed the letter.)

Example: While Jill *was reading* a book, her mother *was sleeping*. (Two actions in progress simultaneously.)

Example: While I *read* a book, my mother *slept*. (Two complete events happened simultaneously.)

Example: My father *was having* a shave at 7 o'clock. (The shave started before 7 o'clock and was still in progress at 7 o'clock.)

Example: My father *had* a shave at 7 o'clock. (The shave started at 7 o'clock until completion.)

Having the same meaning.

a) They *were watching* television all night. (Watching television went on throughout the night.)

b) They *watched* television all night. (Watching television from the beginning to the end of the night.)

(a) and (b) have the same meaning.

c) When she *came* in, I *was dreaming*. (She came in at the time of my dreaming.)

d) She *came* in *while* I *was dreaming*. (She came in during my dreaming.)

(c) and (d) have the same meaning.

S7.) Simple Continuous Future Tense

The **Simple Continuous Future tense** is made up of the *Simple Future tense* of the Verb to be (**shall be / will be**) + a Present Participle (Verb + -ing), as follows: We *shall / will be jogging*.

We use the *Simple Continuous Future tense*:

for an action that lasts a period of time in the future.

Example: His father *will be working* the whole day tomorrow.

for an **action** that has been **planned**.

Example: They *will be going* on vacation this summer.

to express an **action** that will be in progress at a certain or **specified time** in the future.

Example: We *will / shall be sleeping* by the time you return.

Example: At this time next week, I *shall / will be playing* poker.

Example: *Will they be coming* at 6 p.m. tomorrow?

for an **action** which will happen as a matter of **routine** or as scheduled (without intention)

Example: You *will be working* with Miss Cool again when you turn up for work tomorrow.

Example: The first train *will be departing* at 5.30 a.m.

to seek a favour of someone by asking about their plans

Example: *Will you be passing* the post office on your way home?

to **ask for information**

Example: *Will you be joining* the drinking session tonight?

To make a **prediction** about something in the future.

Example: She *will be feeling* very sad after learning the truth.

(When in doubt, we can use *may* instead of *shall/will*. Example: She *may be feeling* very sad after learning the truth.)

S8.) Simple Continuous Future In The Past Tense

With the **Simple Continuous Future tense in the Past** we express the so-called "Present Conditional Continuous", better called **Simple Continuous Conditional** as it is **no Present tense** at all. It is used in the if-clauses of a Conditional sentence. See Chapter "If-Sentences And Conditional Tenses"!

P1.) Perfect Present Tense

The **Perfect Present tense** connects the present to the past. It describes an action that happened in the past and goes right to the present moment. The time of occurrence of the action is not mentioned. Usually, the **time is not important** or is not necessary to know. It is **the result** of the action that **matters**. It tells us the outcome to date of the action. In other words, "Frank has gone" tell us that "Frank is no longer with us".

To express something in the *Perfect Present tense*, join the *Simple Present tense* of **have / has** with the *Past Participle* of the main Verb (which can be a Regular Verb or Irregular Verb).

P2.) Perfect Past Tense

The **Perfect Past tense** describes an event that happened in the past **before another event** was completed in the past. It tells us **which event happened first** regardless of which event is mentioned first or second in a sentence or conversation.

The *Perfect Past tense* is used:

1. to show an action happened in the past before another event took place.

Words usually used with the *Perfect Past tense* are **when** and **after**.

Example: They **had already** finished their dinner **when** I arrived to join them.

Example: **When** he **had done** his homework, he went for a smoke in the park.

Example: **After** I **had eaten** five apples, I felt ill.

Example: I arrived at the cinema **after** the film **had started**.

In each of the above examples there are two past actions. The *Perfect Past tense* is **combined** with a *Simple Past tense* to show **which** of the two actions **happened earlier**.

The **event** in the *Perfect Past tense* **occurred before** the **event** in the *Simple Past tense*.

Words such as **already**, **just** and **as soon as** are also used with the *Perfect Past tense*.

Example: *It had already stopped raining when I bought an umbrella.*

Example: *The whole house had just burnt down when the firemen got there.*

Example: *As soon as she had got married, she regretted it.*

2. for an action which happened *before a definite time* in the past.

Example: *They had finished their prayers by ten o'clock.*

3. for an action which took place and *completed* in the past.

Example: *He had hurt his back in an accident at work and he had to stay at home for three months. (The action happened and he suffered the consequences all in the past)*

4. for *states*.

Example: *They had become good friends for many years after meeting on holiday.*

When two actions were completed in the past, use a **Perfect Past tense** to clarify which event happened **earlier**.

a) INCORRECT: *The museum occupied the building where the art gallery **was**.*

b) CORRECT: *The museum occupied the building where the art gallery **had been**.*

c) INCORRECT: *The list of movies you showed me, I **saw** before.*

d) CORRECT: *The list of movies you showed me, I **had seen** before.*

In (a), the use of two Simple Past tenses (occupied; was) imply the

museum and the art gallery occupied the same building at the same time, which was not the case. In (b), the use of the *Perfect Past tense* (had been) sorts out the order of occupation of the building.

In (c), 'I saw before' clearly indicates it happened before the list was showed to me, and so should be in the *Perfect Past tense* as in (d).

Sometimes the *Perfect Past tense* and the *Simple Past tense* are used separately in different sentences.

Example: *This morning we **visited** John in the hospital. He **had just been admitted** with stomach pains.*

The *Simple Past tense* precedes the *Perfect Past tense*. Notice the action in the *Perfect Past tense* happened first.

Before and after

As mentioned above, the event expressed in the *Perfect Past tense* occurred earlier than the event in the *Simple Past tense*. However, when before or after is used in a sentence, the *Perfect Past tense* becomes unnecessary as the two words - before or after – already clarify which action takes place first. We can use the *Simple Past tense* instead. Look at these examples.

a) *After she **had read** the letter, she **tore** it into pieces.*

b) *After she **read** the letter, she **tore** it into pieces.*

c) *We **had left** the stadium before the match **ended**.*

d) *We **left** the stadium before the match **ended**.*

Changing the Perfect Past tense to Simple Past tense does not affect the meaning of the sentences as (a) and (b) have the same meaning, and (c) and (d) have the same meaning.

How we use the Perfect Past tense and the Perfect Present tense

The salad bowl **was** empty. I **had eaten** the salad.
The salad bowl **is** empty. I **have eaten** the salad.
We **were** tired. We **had** just **had** a long walk.
We **are** tired. We **have** just **had** a long walk.
Grandma **was** limping. She **had fallen** down a drain.
Grandma **is** limping. She **has fallen** down a drain.

How we use the Perfect Past tense and the Simple Past tense

George **is** the captain of his football team. He **started** playing football when he was 9 years old. He **became** the best striker in the country when he **was** only seventeen.

George **was** the captain of his football team. He **had started** playing football when he was 9 years old. He **had become** the best striker in the country when he **was** only seventeen.

Indirect speech

The Perfect Past tense is often used in Reported or Indirect Speech. It is used in place of the verb in the:

1. Perfect Present tense in the direct speech:
Direct speech: He said, "I **have lost** my puppy."
Indirect speech: He said he **had lost** his puppy.
2. Simple Past tense in the direct speech:
Direct speech: She said, "I **made** the biggest birthday cake in town."
Indirect speech: She said she **had made** the biggest birthday cake in town

Perfect Past tense used after 'if' , 'if only' and 'wish'

The *Perfect Past tense* is used to express an impossible condition as it refers to something which did or did not happen in the past.

Example: I **would have bought** two if I **had brought** enough money.

Example: If only he **had shut up** at the meeting.

Example: I wish you **had bought** one for me.

Example: They wish they **had not seen** that scary movie.

Perfect Past tense used after certain expressions

Perfect Past tense is often used after the following expressions in bold:

I knew (that) his brother **had gone** to work overseas.

I didn't know (that) he **had stopped** smoking.

I thought (that) we **had got** on the wrong train.

I was sure (that) their birds **had eaten** my bananas.

I wasn't sure (that) the snake **had bitten** him.

A comment on the Passive form of the Perfect Past tense

We put **been** in front of the Past Participle in the active form to make the Passive form.

The Passive form is used to show that something was done **to** the Subject and not **by** the Subject.

Example: He said he **had been** chased by a rhinoceros.

Example: I did not know that I **had been** invited to her wedding.

P3.) Perfect Future Tense

The **Perfect Future tense** is formed by using the *Simple Future tense* of the Verb **to have** (will have) + the Past Participle of the main Verb. It is used for an action which will have finished by some future time or date as mentioned:

Statement: She **will have sewn** the patch on her jeans by nine o'clock

Question: **Will** the people **have put** out the fire by the time the firemen arrive?

The *Perfect Future tense* is used:

to show that an activity will be **completed** by a **specified time** in the future.

Example: I **will have saved** about one million dollars by the year 2090.

to show that an action will be **completed before** another takes place in the future.

Example: *The fire will have burnt the building to the ground by the time the firemen arrive.*

to show a **situation will be over** in the future.

Example: **The special offer – buy two, get one free – will have finished by midday tomorrow.**

with Conditional 'if'.

Example: *If you don't hurry up, we will have eaten all the food when you get to the table.*

with time clause. The *Perfect Future tense* may come either **before or after the time clause**.

a) *On April 1st, she will have been here for six months.*

b) *She will have been here for six months on April 1st.*

c) *We will have waited for more than thirty minutes by the time the bus arrives.*

Time clauses: On April 1st / by the time the bus arrives. Main clauses: She will have been here for six months. We will have waited for more than thirty minutes. A comma is placed at the end of a time clause when the time clause comes before the main clause as in (a).

with **time expressions** such as by seven o'clock, by this evening, by next Thursday, by then, until noon tomorrow, before closing date.

Example: He will have prepared the documents by next Friday.

The *Perfect Future tense* and the *Perfect Continuous Future tense*:

a) *When Joan competes in the marathon next week, she will have trained for nine months.*

b) *When Joan competes in the marathon next week, she will have been training for nine months.*

Both (a) and (b) have the same meaning.

P4. Perfect Future Tense In The Past

With the ***Perfect Future tense in the Past*** we express the so-called **Perfect Conditional** tense, which is also known as **Conditional II**.

It is used in the if-clauses of a Conditional sentence. See Chapter "If-Sentences And Conditional Tenses"!

P5. Perfect Continuous Present Tense

The **Perfect Continuous Present tense** is used:

for an action that began in the past and has been continuing up to now (and may still be going on)

Example:

*Cecilia and I **have been talking** about getting married.*

used for an **action** that **began and just finished** in the past.

Example: "Look how dirty your hands are." "Yes, I **have been repairing the** car."

often used with **since, for, ever since**, etc.

Examples:

*Grandpa **has been playing** with his grandchildren for hours.*

*I **have been looking** for the missing piece of the jigsaw since ten o'clock.*

*He **has been working** there ever since he went there for a holiday.*

also used with **all** (all day, all evening, all week) to indicate duration of an activity, **lately**, etc.

Examples:

*He **has been suffering** from toothache **all** day.*

*I **have been feeling** ill **lately**.*

used with **how long** to form questions.

Example:

***How long have you been** studying English?*

without mention of **time**

Example:

*We **have been having** a lot of difficulties with our new computer system. (describes a difficult situation that is not over.)*

P6.) Perfect Continuous Past Tense

The **Perfect Continuous Past tense** is used:

for an action that occurred over a period of time in the past.

Example: He had been playing saxophone in a jazz band.

for an **action** which **started and finished** in the past **before another past action**. Here, **since** or **for** is usually used.

Example: Jack got a job at last. He had been looking for a job since last year.

Example: He and his brother had been playing badminton together for ten years before one of them got married.

in **reported speech**, the present perfect continuous tense becomes past perfect continuous tense.

Example: John said, "We have been traveling by train across Europe."

Example: John said they had been traveling by train across Europe.

Normally, the *Perfect Past Continuous tense* is **not used** for **states** or **feelings**.

NOT: He had been seeming pretty angry at me.

The Simple Past tense is used instead:

Example: He seemed pretty angry at me.

The Perfect Continuous Past and the Perfect Continuous Present

He was my tennis partner. We had been playing together for seven years.

He is my tennis partner. We have been playing together for seven years.

It was midnight and you had been watching television for four hours.

It is midnight and you have been watching television for four hours.

Why was he so angry? What had they been doing to him?

Why is he so angry? What have they been doing to him?

She had been shopping for eight hours for a new dress, but couldn't find one she liked.

She has been shopping for eight hours for a new dress, but can't find one she likes.

The Perfect Continuous Past tense and the Perfect Past tense

a) I had been looking everywhere for you.

b) I had looked everywhere for you.

c) Sandy was very confident because she had been rehearsing hard for the play.

d) Sandy was very confident because she had rehearsed hard for the play.

The Perfect Continuous Past and Perfect Past tenses as used above convey the same meaning as in (a) and (b), (c) and (d).

The Perfect Continuous Past tense and the Simple Past tense

When I phoned, they all had been saying their prayers. (I phoned after the prayers.)

When I phoned, they all were saying their prayers. (I phoned during the prayers.)

We had been having our dinner when he arrived. (He arrived after dinner.)

We were having our dinner when he arrived. (He arrived during dinner.)

P7.) Perfect Continuous Future Tense

The **Perfect Continuous Future tense** is used:

to indicate the **length of time** that an action continues **in the future**. Example: *At noon tomorrow, my aunt **will have been driving** a hearse **for fifteen years**.*

to show an **action in progress until an event happens** in the future. Here, we usually make use of the time clause. The Future Perfect Continuous may come either before or after the time clause.

a) *By the time the bus **arrives**, we **will have been waiting** for more than thirty minutes.*

b) *We **will have been waiting** for more than thirty minutes by the time the bus **arrives**.*

Time clause: by the time the bus arrives. Main clause: we will have been waiting for more than thirty minutes. A comma is placed at the end of a time clause when the time clause comes before the main clause as in (a).

P8.) Perfect Continuous Future In The Past Tense

With the **Perfect Continuous Future in the Past tense** we express the so-called **Perfect Conditional tense**. It is used in the if-clauses of a Conditional sentence. See Chapter "If-Sentences And Conditional Tenses"!

IF-SENTENCES AND CONDITIONAL TENSES

Conditional tenses are used to speculate about what *could* happen, what *might have* happened, and what we wish *would* happen. In English, most sentences using the Conditional contain the word *if*. Many Conditional forms in English are used in sentences that include Verbs in one of the Past tenses. This usage is known as "**the Unreal Past**" because we use a Past tense but we are not actually referring to something that happened in the Past.

Conditional sentences are sometimes confusing for learners of English. We have to consider:

1. Which type of conditional sentence is it?
2. Where is the if-clause (either at the beginning or at the end of the conditional sentence)?
3. There are 5 types of conditional sentences: The **Zero** Conditional; **if**-clauses type **I, II, III**; and the **Mixed** type.
4. The Verb forms in the 2 clauses of a sentence must **agree with each other**. **AGREEMENT RULES: AN IF-CLAUSE IN PRESENT TENSE MUST HAVE A MAIN CLAUSE WITH VERBS OR MODAL VERBS IN THEIR PRESENT FORMS, AND AN IF-CLAUSE IN ANY KIND OF PAST TENSE MUST HAVE A MAIN CLAUSE WITH VERBS OR MODAL VERBS IN THEIR PAST FORMS!** (The so-called "*Present Conditional*" is not a Present tense at all because it contains the Modal Verbs "**would, should, could, might, ought to**". This is the reason why we here do not use confusing names such as "Present Conditional" but according to the Past forms of their Modal Verbs "***Simple Future in the Past, Simple Continuous Future in the Past, Perfect Future in the Past, Perfect Continuous Future in the Past***")

There are 5 main ways of constructing Conditional sentences in English. In all cases, these sentences are made up of an **if-clause** (either in the ***Simple Present, Simple Past, or the Perfect Past***) and a **main clause** (either in the ***Simple Present, Simple Future, Simple Future in the Past, Simple Continuous Future in the Past, Perfect Future in the Past or the Perfect Continuous Future in the Past***). (Mind: In many negative Conditional sentences, there is an equivalent sentence construction using "unless" instead of "if".)

Type	Meaning	If-clause Verb tense	Main clause Verb tense
Zero	General or certain facts and truths	Simple Present (I go)	Simple Present (I do)
Type 1	A possible condition and its probable result. Condition possible to fulfill.	Simple Present (I go)	Simple Future (I will do; also with "shall, can, may, must". It is in reality a Present tense form!)
Type 2	A hypothetical condition and its probable result. Condition in theory possible to fulfill.	Simple Past (I went)	Simple Future in the Past (I would do; always also with "should, could, might, ought to") or Simple Continuous Future in the Past (I would be doing)
Type 3	An unreal past condition and its probable result in the past. time Condition not possible to fulfill (because too late).	Perfect Past (I had gone)	Perfect Future in the Past (I would have done) or Perfect Continuous Future in the Past (I would have been doing)
Mixed Type	An unreal Past Condition and its probable result in the present time	Perfect Past (I had gone) like in type 3	Simple Future in the Past (I would do) like in type 2

Look out: Verb examples are set in **bold** letters to show that they match!

LORD HENFIELD'S VERB GUIDE
on Verb tense Agreement
in Conditional sentences
(with short explanations):



Simple Tenses:

- Action that takes place once, never or several times.
- Actions that happen one after another.
- Actions that suddenly take place.



Simple Continuous Tenses:

- Action that started before a certain moment and lasts beyond that moment.
- Actions taking place at the same time.



Perfect Tenses:

- Action taking place before a certain moment in time.
- Puts emphasis on the result of an action or state.



Perfect Continuous Tenses:

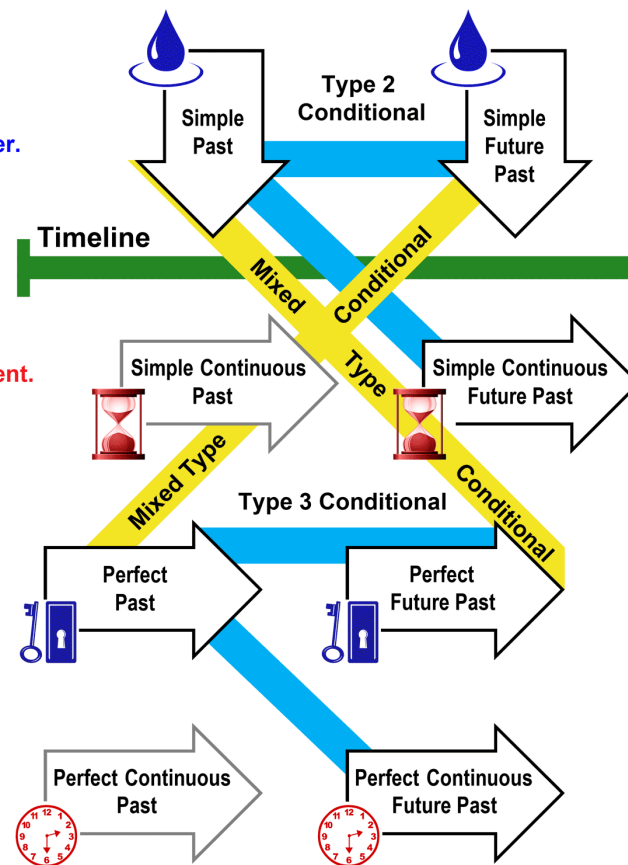
- Action taking place before a certain moment in time.
- Puts emphasis on the course or duration of the action.

COMMENT on Usage: The Mixed Type Conditional mixes the if-clause of Type 3 with a Conditional clause of Type 2, or the if-clause of Type 2 with a Conditional clause of Type 3.

THE ENTIRE PAST TENSE GROUP

All **Past** tenses talk about actions or events in a **past reality**.

All **Future Past** tenses talk about actions or events or wishes which are **not real**.



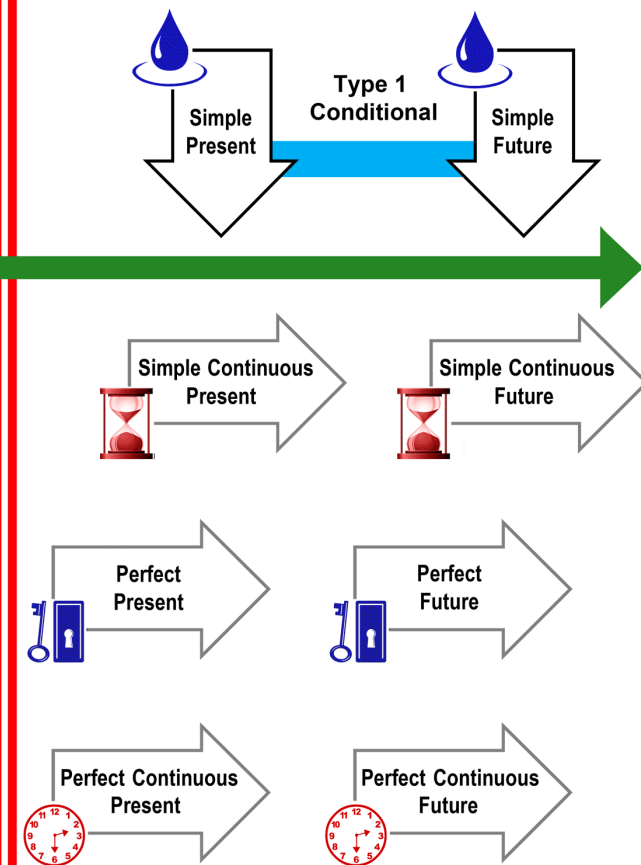
The **Simple Past** and the **Perfect Past** can be used in if-clauses!

All these **Future Past** tenses can be used either in Type 2 or Type 3 Conditional clauses!

THE ENTIRE PRESENT TENSE GROUP

All **Present** tenses talk about actions or events in a **present reality**.

All **Future** tenses talk about actions or events in a **future reality**.



The **Simple Present** can be used in Type 1 if-clauses and Zero Conditional clauses!

The **Simple Future** can be used in Type 1 Conditional clauses!

The Unreal Past

Before we deal with the 5 Conditional types, we need to know what the **Unreal Past** is. The *Past tense* is sometimes used in English to refer to an unreal situation. So, although a Verb tense may be in the Past, we are actually talking about something that **did not** happen. This is often the case in Conditional sentences when we are talking about a hypothetical situation that might exist at any time. We call this use of the Past tense "the Unreal Past". The Unreal Past is used after Conditional words and expressions like **if, if only, what if, supposing, I'd rather** (*I had rather*). and after the Verb **to wish**. We may ignore the Agreement Rules when we refer to a **probable, guessed, wanted or not wanted outcome**. Here the Present tense may be followed by the Past or by Modal Verbs in the Past "would, should, could, might, ought to".

Conditional words and expressions

The expressions **if, supposing, if only, what if** can be used to introduce hypothetical situations and followed by a the simple past tense to indicate that the condition they introduce is imaginary.

Examples:

Supposing all frozen ice of the polar caps melt. **What if** we painted the kitchen yellow? **If** you went to the cinema, I would babysit. **If only** I had more money, I could go to the cinema too.

These expressions can also introduce hypothetical situations in the past and then they are followed by the Perfect Past.

Examples:

If only I had not spent all the money. **What if** you had stepped on my phone? **Supposing** I had given that man my key.

Wishes:

The verb **to wish** is used with the Unreal Past when we want to talk about situations in the present that we are not happy about but cannot change.

Examples:

I **wish** I **had** more money. She **wishes** she **was** beautiful. We **wish** we **could** come to your party. (no agreement)

When we want to talk about situations in the past that we are not happy about or actions that we regret, we use the verb **to wish** followed by the Perfect Past.

Examples:

I **wish** I **had** not said that. He **wishes** he **had** not bought the car. I **wish** I **had** taken that job in New York. (no agreement)

When we want to talk about situations we are not happy about and where we want someone else to change them, we use **to wish** followed by **would** + infinitive. (no agreement)

Examples:

I **wish** he **would** stop smoking. I **wish** you **would** go away. I **wish** you **would** not squeeze the toothpaste from the middle!

Preferences using "I'd rather" and "It's time"

I'd rather (I had rather) and *it's (it was) time* are also followed by the Unreal Past. The Verb is in the Past tense, but the situation is in the Present. When we want to talk about a course of action we would prefer someone else to take, we use **I'd rather** + *Past tense*.

Examples:

I'd rather you went. **He'd rather** you called the police. **I'd rather** you didn't hunt elephants.

The stress can be important in these sentences, to show what our preference is.

Examples:

*I'd rather **you** went. (instead of me) I'd rather you **went**. (instead of staying) He'd rather **you** called the police. (instead of me) He'd rather you called the **police**. (instead of the firemen)*

Similarly, when we want to say that now is a suitable moment to do something, either for ourselves or for someone else, we use **it's time** + *Past tense*.

Examples:

It is time you *paid* that bill. **It is time** I *went* home. Do you not think **it is time** you *had* a haircut?

The Zero Conditional

The **Zero Conditional** is used for when the time being referred to is **now or always** and the situation is **real and possible**.

If clause (condition) If + Simple Present	Main clause (result) Simple Present
If this thing happens ,	that thing happens .
If you heat ice	it melts .
If it rains	the grass gets wet.

The *Zero Conditional* is often used to refer to general facts or truths. The tense in both parts of the sentence is the *Simple Present tense*. In Zero Conditional sentences, we can replace "if" with "**when**", because both express general truths. The meaning will be unchanged.

As in all Conditional sentences, the order of the clauses is not fixed. You may have to rearrange the Pronouns and adjust punctuation when you change the order of the clauses, but the meaning is identical.

Examples:

if-clause first = comma needed	if-clause last = no comma needed
If you heat ice, it melts.	Ice melts if you heat it.
When you heat ice, it melts.	Ice melts when you heat it.
If it rains, the grass gets wet.	The grass gets wet if it rains.
When it rains, the grass gets wet.	The grass gets wet when it rains.

Function

The *Zero Conditional* is used to make statements about the real world, and often refers to general truths, such as scientific facts. In these sentences, the time is **now or always** and the situation is **real and possible**.

Examples

- If you **freeze** water, it **becomes** a solid.
- Plants **die** if they **do** not get enough water.
- If my husband **has** a cold, I usually **catch** it.
- If public transport **is** efficient, people **stop** using their cars.
- If you **mix** yellow and blue, you **get** green.

The *Zero Conditional* is also often used to give instructions, using the Imperative in the main clause.

Examples

- If Bill **phones**, **tell** him to meet me at the cinema.
- **Ask** Pete if you **are** not sure what to do.
- If you **want** to come, **call** me before 5:00.
- **Meet** me here if we **get** separated.

Type 1 Conditional

The **type 1 Conditional** is used to refer to the **Present** or **Future** where the **situation is real**.

If clause (condition) If + Simple Present	Main clause (result) Simple Future
If this thing happens	that thing will happen.
If you do not hurry	you will miss the train.
If it rains today	you will get wet.

The *type 1 Conditional* refers to a possible condition and its probable result. In these sentences the if-clause is in the Simple Present, and the main clause is in the Simple Future (which is made with Modal Verb forms in their Present tense *will, shall, can, may, must*) .

As in all Conditional sentences, the order of the clauses is not fixed. You may have to rearrange the Pronouns and adjust punctuation when you change the order of the clauses, but the meaning is identical.

Examples:

if-clause first = comma needed	if-clause last = no comma needed
If it rains, you will get wet.	You will get wet if it rains.
If Jane is late again, I will be mad.	I will be mad if Jane is late again.
If you do not hurry, you will miss the train.	You will miss the train if you do not hurry.

Function

The *type 1 Conditional* refers to a *possible* condition and its *probable* result. These sentences are based on facts, and they are used to make statements about the real world, and about particular situations. We often use such sentences to give warnings. In *type 1 Conditional* sentences, the time is the **Present** or **Future** and the situation is **real**.

Examples:

- If I **have** time, I **shall** finish that letter.
- What **will** you do if you **miss** the plane?
- Nobody **will** notice if you **make** a mistake.
- If you **drop** that glass, it **will** break.
- If you **do** not drop the gun, I **will** shoot!
- If you **do** not leave, I **shall** call the police.

In *type 1 conditional* sentences, you can also use modals in the main clause instead of the future tense to express the degree of certainty, permission, or a recommendation about the outcome.

Examples:

- If you **drop** that glass, it **might** break. (no agreement)
- I **may** finish that letter if I **have** time.
- If he **calls** you, you **should** go. (no agreement)
- If you **buy** my school supplies for me, I **will** be able to go to the park.

Type 2 Conditional

The **type 2 Conditional** is used to refer to a time that is **now or any time**, and a situation that is **unreal**. These sentences are not based on fact. The *type 2 Conditional* is used to refer to a hypothetical condition and its probable result. In *type 2 conditional sentences*, the if clause uses the simple past, and the main clause uses the **Simple Future in the Past** (with *would, should, could, might, ought to*):

If clause (condition) If + Simple Past	Main clause Future in the Past or Continuous Future in the Past
If this thing happened	that thing would happen. (but I am not sure this thing will happen) OR that thing would be happening.
If you went to bed earlier	you would not be so tired.
If it rained	you would get wet.
If I spoke Italian	I would be working in Italy.

As in all Conditional sentences, the order of the clauses is not fixed. You may have to rearrange the Pronouns and adjust punctuation when you change the order of the clauses, the meaning is the same.

Examples:

if-clause first = comma needed	if-clause last = no comma needed
If it rained, you would get wet.	You would get wet if it rained.
If you went to bed earlier you would not be so tired.	You would not be so tired if you went to bed earlier.
If she fell, she would hurt herself.	She would hurt herself if she fell.

Function

The *type 2 Conditional* refers to an *unlikely* or *hypothetical* condition and its *probable* result. These sentences are not based on the actual situation. In type 2 Conditional sentences, the time is **now or any time** and the situation is **hypothetical**.

Examples:

- If the weather **was / were** not so bad, we **would** go to the park. (But the weather **is** bad so we **cannot** go.)
- If I **was / were** the Secretary of Education, I would give everyone a better education. (But I am not the Secretary of Education.)
- If you really **loved** me, you **would** buy me a diamond ring.
- If I **knew** where she lived, I **would** go and see her.

It is correct, and very common, to say "if I were" instead of "if I was", because **were** represents the **Subjunctive Mood**.

More Examples:

- If I **were** taller, I **would** buy this dress.
- If I **were** 20, I **would** travel the world.
- If I **were** you, I **would** give up smoking.
- If I **were** a plant, I **would** love the rain.

In *type 2 Conditional* sentences, you can also use Modal Verbs in the main clause instead of "would" to express the degree of certainty, permission, or a recommendation about the outcome.

Examples:

- We **might** buy a larger house if we **had** more money
- He **could** go to the concert if you **gave** him your ticket.
- If he **called** upon me, I **could** not avoid letting him in.

The **Simple Future in the Past tense** with "to go":

Positive Statement	Negative Statement	Positive Question	Negative Question
I would go	I would not go	Would I go?	Would I not go?
You would go	You would not go	Would you go?	Would you not go?
He would go	He would not go	Would he go?	Would he not go?
We would go	We would not go	Would we go?	Would we not go?
You would go	You would not go	Would you go?	Would you not go?
They would go	They would not go	Would they go?	Would they not go?

Function of the Simple Future in the Past Continuous tense

This form is common in *type 2 Conditional* sentences. It expresses an **unfinished or continuing action or situation**, which is the probable result of an **unreal condition**:

If clause (condition) If + Simple Past	Main clause (result) Simple Continuous Future in the Past
If this thing happened	that thing would be happening.
If I told him	he would be staying
If it rained	they would be going

The Future in the Past Continuous of any Verb is composed of three elements: **would + be + present participle**.

The **Future in the Past Continuous tense** with "to go":

Positive Statement	Negative Statement	Positive Question	Negative Question
I would be going	I would not be going	Would I be going?	Would I not be going?
You would be going	You would not be going	Would you be going?	Would you not be going?
He would be going	He would not be going	Would he be going?	Would he not be going?
We would be going	We would not be going	Would we be going?	Would we not be going?
You would be going	You would not be going	Would you be going?	Would you not be going?
They would be going	They would not be going	Would they be going?	Would they not be going?

Examples:

- I **would** be working in Italy if I **spoke** Italian. (But I **do** not speak Italian, so I **am** not working in Italy)
- She **would** not be living with Jack if she **lived** with her parents. (But she **is** living with Jack and not with her parents).
- You **would** not be smiling if you **knew** the truth. (But you **are** smiling because you **do** not know the truth.)

Type 3 Conditional

The **type 3 Conditional** is used to refer to a time that is **in the Past**, and a situation that is **contrary to reality**. The facts they are based on are the opposite of what is expressed. The *type 3 Conditional* is used to refer to an unreal past condition and its probable result in the Past. In *type 3 Conditional* sentences, the if clause uses the Perfect Past, and the main clause uses the **Future Perfect in the Past** or **Future Perfect in the Past Continuous**.

If clause (condition) If + Perfect Past	Main clause (result) Perfect Future in the Past or Perfect Continuous Future in the Past
If this thing had happened	that thing would have happened. (but neither of those things really happened) OR that thing would have been happening.
If you had studied harder	you would have passed the exam.
If it had rained	you would have got(ten) wet.
If I had accepted that promotion	I would have been working in Toronto.

As in all Conditional sentences, the order of the clauses is not fixed. You may have to rearrange the pronouns and adjust punctuation when you change the order of the clauses, but the meaning is identical.

Examples:

if-clause first = comma needed	if-clause last = no comma needed
If it had rained, you would have got(ten) wet.	You would have got(ten) wet if it had rained.
If you had worked harder, you would have passed your exam.	You would have passed your exam if you had worked harder.
If you had not lied to me before, I would have believed you.	I would have believed you if you had not lied to me before.

Function

The *type 3 Conditional* refers to an impossible condition in the past and its probable result in the past. These sentences are truly **hypothetical** and **unreal**, because it is now **too late** for the condition or its result to exist. There is always some implication of **regret** with *type 3 Conditional* sentences. The reality is the opposite of, or contrary to, what the sentence expresses. In *type 3 Conditional* sentences, the time is the **past** and the situation is **hypothetical**.

Examples:

- If I **had** worked harder I **would** have passed the exam. (But I **did** not work hard, and I **did** not pass the exam.)
- If I **had** known you were coming I **would** have baked a cake. (But I didn't know and I didn't bake a cake.)
- I **would** have been happy if you **had** called me on my birthday. (But you didn't call me and I am not happy.)

In type 3 Conditional sentences, we can also use other Modal Verbs in the main clause instead of "would" in order to express the degree of certainty, permission, or a recommendation about the outcome.

Examples:

- If I **had** worked harder I **might** have passed the exam.
- You **could** have been on time if you **had** caught the bus.
- If he **called** you, you **could** go.
- If you **bought** a ticket for me, I **might** be able to go to the zoo.

Contractions

Both **would** and **had** can be contracted to **'d**, which can be confusing in type 3 conditional sentences. Remember 2 rules:

1. **would** never appears in the **if-clause** so if **'d** appears in the if clause, it must be abbreviating **had**.
2. **had** never appears before **have** so if **'d** appears on a Pronoun just before **have**, it must be abbreviating **would**.

Examples:

- If I **'d** known you were in hospital, I **'d** have visited you.
- If I **had** known you were in hospital, I **would** have visited you.
- I **'d** have got you a present if I **'d** known it was your birthday.
- I **would** have got you a present if I **had** known it was your birthday.
- If **you'd** given me your e-mail, I **'d** have written to you.
- If **you had** given me your e-mail, I **would** have written to you.

Tip: If you want to be understood correctly, avoid contractions!

The Perfect Future in the Past tense

The **Perfect Future in the Past tense** of any Verb is composed of three elements: **would + have + Past Participle**

Have followed by the **Past Participle** is used in other constructions as well. We could call it the "Perfect Infinitive".

The **Perfect Future in the Past tense** of "to go":

Positive Statement	Negative Statement	Positive Question	Negative Question
I would have gone	I would not have gone	Would I have gone?	Would I not have gone?
You would have gone	You would not have gone	Would you have gone?	Would you not have gone?
He would have gone	He would not have gone	Would he have gone?	Would he not have gone?
She would have gone	She would not have gone	Would she have gone?	Would she not have gone?
We would have gone	We would not have gone	Would we have gone?	Would we not have gone?
They would have gone	They would not have gone	Would they have gone?	Would not they have gone?

The Perfect Future in the Past Continuous tense

The **Perfect Future in the Past Continuous tense** of any Verb is composed of four elements: **would + have + been + Present Participle**

The **Perfect Future in the Past Continuous tense** of "to go":

Positive Statement	Negative Statement	Positive Question	Negative Question
I would have been going	I would not have been going	Would I have been going?	Would I not have been going?
You would have been going	You would not have been going	Would you have been going?	Would you not have been going?
He would have been going	He would not have been going	Would he have been going?	Would he not have been going?
She would have been going	She would not have been going	Would she have been going?	Would she not have been going?
We would have been going	We would not have been going	Would we have been going?	Would we not have been going?
They would have been going	They would not have been going	Would they have been going?	Would not they have been going?

Function

The **Perfect Future in the Past Continuous tense** can be used in type 3 conditional sentences. It refers to the unfulfilled result of the action in the if-clause, and expresses this result as an unfinished or continuous action.

Examples:

- If the weather **had** been better (but it wasn't), I **would** have been sitting in the garden when he arrived (but I **was** not).
- If she **had** not got a job in London (but she **did**), she **would** have been working in Paris (but she **was** not).
- If I **had** had a ball I **would** have been playing football.
- If I **had** known it was dangerous I **would** not have been climbing that cliff.

Mixed Type Conditional

The *mixed type Conditional* is used to refer to a time that is **in the past**, and a situation that is **ongoing into the present**.

The facts they are based on are the opposite of what is expressed. The *mixed type Conditional* is used to refer to an unreal past condition and its probable result in the present. In *mixed type Conditional* sentences, the if clause uses the Perfect Past, and the main clause uses the Future in the Past (= Simple Conditional).

If clause (condition) If + Perfect Past or Simple Past	Main clause (result) Simple Future in the Past or Perfect Future in the Past
If this thing had happened	that thing would happen. (but this thing did not happen so that thing is not happening)
If I had worked harder at school	I would have a better job now.
If we had looked at the map	we would not be lost.
If you were not afraid of spiders	you would have picked up the spider and (have) thrown it outside.

It is possible for the two parts of a Conditional sentence to refer to different times, and the resulting sentence is a "mixed conditional" sentence. There are two types of *mixed conditional sentence*.

A.) PRESENT RESULT OF A PAST CONDITION

In this type of mixed Conditional sentence, the tense in the 'if'-clause is the Perfect Past, and the tense in the main clause is the Simple Future in the Past (Simple Conditional).

If clause (condition) If + Perfect Past	Main clause (result) Simple Future in the Past
If this thing had happened	that thing would happen

As in all Conditional sentences, the order of the clauses is not fixed. You may have to rearrange the pronouns and adjust punctuation when you change the order of the clauses, but the meaning is identical.

Examples:

- If I **had** worked harder at school, I **would** have a better job now.
- I **would** have a better job now if I **had** worked harder at school.
- If we **had** looked at the map we **would** not be lost.
- We **would** not be lost if we **had** looked at the map.
- If you **had** caught that plane you **would** be dead now.
- You **would** be dead now if you **had** caught that plane.

Function

This type of *mixed Conditional* refers to an unreal past condition and its probable result in the present time. These sentences express a situation which is contrary to reality both in the past and in the present. In these mixed Conditional sentences, the time is the **Past** in the "if" clause and in the **Present** in the main clause.

Examples

- If I **had** studied, I **would** have my driving license. (but I did not study and now I do not have my license)
- I **would** be a millionaire now if I **had** taken that job. (but I did not take the job and I am not a millionaire now)

- If you **had** spent all your money, you **wouldn't** buy this jacket. (but you didn't spend all your money and now you can buy this jacket)

In these *mixed Conditional* sentences, you can also use modals in the main clause instead of *would* to express the degree of certainty, permission, or a recommendation about the outcome.

Examples

- If you **had** crashed the car, you **might** be in trouble.
- I **could** be a millionaire now if I **had** invested in housing.
- If I **had** learned to ski, I **might** be on the slopes right now.

B.) PAST RESULT OF PRESENT OR CONTINUING CONDITION

In this second type of mixed Conditional sentence, the tense in the 'if' clause is the Simple Past, and the tense in the main clause is the Perfect Future in the Past (Perfect Conditional).

If clause (condition)	Main clause (result)
If + Simple Past	Perfect Future in the Past
If this thing happened	that thing would have happened

As in all Conditional sentences, the order of the clauses is not fixed. You may have to rearrange the pronouns and adjust punctuation when you change the order of the clauses, but the meaning is identical.

Examples:

- If I **was** not afraid of spiders, I **would** have picked it up.
- I **would** have picked it up if I **was** not afraid of spiders.
- If we **did** not trust him we **would** have sacked him months ago.
- We **would** have sacked him months ago if we **did** not trust him.
- If I **was** not in the middle of another meeting, I **would** have been happy to help you.
- I **would** have been happy to help you if I **was** not in the middle of another meeting.

Function

These mixed conditional sentences refer to an unreal present situation and its probable (but unreal) past result. In these mixed conditional sentences, the time in the if clause is **now or always** and the time in the main clause is **before now**. For example, "If I wasn't afraid of spiders" is contrary to present reality. I am afraid of spiders. "I would have picked it up" is contrary to past reality. I didn't pick it up.

Examples:

- If she **was** not afraid of flying she **would** not have travelled by boat.
- I **would** have been able to translate the letter if my Italian **was** better.
- If I **was** a good cook, I **would** have invited them to lunch.
- If the elephant **was** not in love with the mouse, she **would** have trodden on him by now.

How to use **UNLESS**

Unless means the same as *if...not*. Like *if*, *unless* is followed by a present tense, a past tense, or a past perfect tense (never by a conditional). *Unless* is used instead of *if...not* in conditional sentences of all types. The order of the clauses doesn't matter with sentences using *unless*.

Type 1 Conditional: **UNLESS** + Simple Present tense

With IF	Equivalent with UNLESS
You will be sick if you do not stop eating.	You will be sick unless you stop eating.
I will not pay if you do not provide the goods immediately.	I will not pay unless you provide the goods immediately.
If you do not study diligently, you will never understand trigonometry.	Unless you study diligently, you will never understand trigonometry.

Type 2 Conditional: **UNLESS** + Simple Past tense

With IF	Equivalent with UNLESS
If he was not very ill, he would be at work.	Unless he was very ill, he would be at work.
I would not eat that food if I was not really hungry.	I would not eat that food unless I was really hungry.
She would be here by now if she was not stuck in traffic.	She would be here by now unless she was stuck in traffic.

Type 3 conditional: UNLESS + Perfect Past

With IF	Equivalent with UNLESS
Our director would not have signed the contract if she had not had a lawyer present.	Our director would not have signed the contract unless she had had a lawyer present.
I would not have phoned him if you had not suggested it.	I would not have phoned him unless you had suggested it.
They would have shot her if she had not given them the money.	They would have shot her unless she'd given them the money.

How conditional sentences are mixed

Unreal Conditionals (type II + III) sometimes can be mixed, that is, the time of the if-clause may be felt differently from the one of the main clause. If you have a closer look at the next 6 examples, you will see that they all are Past forms. Do bear following rule in mind, just with all the other Conditional sentences, whatever tense or time you choose, the **forms** of both clauses **must match**. Remember the Agreement Rules: *When the if-clause contains a Present tense Verb, the main clause also must contain a Modal Verb construction in the Present tense form with **will, shall, can, may, must**. And when the if-clause contains a Past tense Verb, the main clause also must contain a Modal Verb construction in the Past tense form with **would, should, could, might, ought to**.* You cannot do wrong when you strictly stick to this

rule, and it even does not matter whether you want to express your thoughts in the Continuous aspect or the Perfect aspect!

By the way, in this connexion, the Helper Verbs "**were**" and "**had**" represent the "Subjunctive Mood". "**Were**" is the only Subjunctive Past form of "**to be**" for all Persons, Singular and Plural (just as "**be**" is the only Present form of "to be" in the Subjunctive Mood)!

1. Perfect Past (Subjunctive) → Future in the Past

If I **had taken** an Aspirin, I **would** not have a headache now.

2. Perfect Past (Subjunctive) → Future in the Past

If I **had known** that you are going to come by tomorrow, I **would be** in then.

3. Simple Past (Subjunctive) → Perfect Future in the Past

If she **had** enough money, she **could have done** this trip to Hawaii.

4. Simple Past (Subjunctive) → Future in the Past Continuous

If I **were** you, I **would be spending** my vacation in Seattle.

5. Simple Past (Subjunctive) → Perfect Future in the Past

If I **were** not flying to Paris, I **would have planned** a trip to Rome.

6. Simple Past Continuous (Subjunctive) → Future in the Past

If I **were taking** this exam next week, I **would be** high-strung.

So in case you wonder which form is correct – "if I **were** you" or "if I **was** you"? – then the answer must be (from the grammatical point of view) "if I **were** you" is correct.

If can be **omitted** (in particular to show a Subjunctive meaning): **Had I** taken... (instead of **If I had** taken...); **Were you** my daughter,... (instead of: **If you were** my daughter,...); **Were I** you,... (instead of: if **I were** you); Should you need my advice,... (instead of: If you should need my advice,...).

Replacing IF

If can be replaced by words or expressions with a similar meaning. The most common are: **as long as**, **assuming** (that), **on condition** (that), **on the assumption** (that), **provided** (that), **supposing** (that), **unless**, **with the condition** (that).

IF ↔ WHEN

if and **when** are interchangeable when the statement of the conditional clause is a fact or a general issue (also known as zero conditional)

- **If** you heat ice, it melts.
- **When** you heat ice, it melts

if is used for something that, according to the speaker, **might happen**: We can spend the afternoon on the beach **if** the weather is fine.

when is used for something that, according to the speaker, **will happen**: I will clean up the kitchen right away **when** I am back from work.

IN CASE ↔ IF

in case of can be used to shorten an if-clause as shown below:

- **If** there is a fire, leave the room.
- **In case of** fire, leave the room.

While **if** expresses a condition (1), **in case** is used to express a possibility (2).

1. I need painkillers **if** I am in severe pain.
2. I need painkillers **in case** I am in severe pain.

The expression **just in case** is used pretty much the same way.

- I got you a pizza **just in case** you were hungry. (I do not know whether you are hungry)

WILL and WOULD in if clauses

1. WILL in if-clauses

When the situation or action depicted in the if-clause is a result of the main clause, the *will-future* is used in the if-clause.

- He **will** pay me \$10 if I **will** help him do the dishes. (Doing the dishes is the result of paying ten dollars.)

2. WOULD in if-clauses

In polite requests *would* is possible in if-clauses.

- It **would** be nice if you **would** help me in the kitchen. (Are you ready to help me in the kitchen?)

ENGLISH MODAL VERBS AND THEIR BASIC STRUCTURE

English Modal Verbs are a small class of Helper Verbs. They are tools used mostly to express **modality** (properties such as possibility, probability, obligation, prohibition etc.). They can be distinguished from other Verbs by their **defectiveness** (most of them do not have Participle or Infinitive forms) and by the fact that they do not take the ending -(e)s in the third-person singular.

Modal Verbs in English customarily have the following properties:

- They are **defective**: they are not used as Infinitives or Participles (except occasionally in non-standard English; see Double modals below), nor as Imperatives, nor (in the standard way) as Subjunctives.
- They do **not inflect** (change their forms), except insofar as some of them come in present–past pairs, but some have either no Past form or no Present form. They do not add the ending -(e)s in the third-person singular.
- They function as Helper Verbs (or Auxiliary Verbs): they modify the meaning of another Verb, which they govern. This Verb generally appears as a **bare infinitive** (without "to"), although in some definitions a Modal Verb can also govern the *to*-Infinitive (as in the case of *ought*).
- They have the syntactic properties associated with Helper Verbs in English, principally that they can undergo **subject–auxiliary inversion** (in questions, for example) and can be negated by the appending of **not** after the Verb.

The following Verbs have all of the above properties, and can be classed as the **principal Modal Verbs** of English. They are listed here in **Present–Past pairs** where applicable:

- **will** and **would**
- **shall** and **should**
- **can** and **could**
- **may** and **might**
- **must** (no Past form)
- **ought to** (no Present form)

Certain other Verbs are sometimes, but not always, considered as Modal Verbs; called **Substitute Modals** or **Semi-Modal Verbs**:

- **have to** and **had to** and the phrase **had better**
- **need to** and **needed to**
- **dare to** and **dared to**
- **used to**
- **let**

The Verbs "**ought to**", "**used to**" and "**need to**" are special in meaning and behaviour. **Ought to** means **should** in a moral sense of meaning and has the word "**to**" attached to it **only** in a *positive statement*. **Need to** is used as the **opposite** of **must** in negative statements, in positive Questions and negative Questions. In both, **used to** and **need to**, we often **omit** the word "**to**" in a negative statement, in a positive Question and in a negative Question! **Used to** refers to **habits** in the Past and therefore we do not build Future tenses with **used to**. **Used to** is a substitute that we can use without any Helper Verb just like **ought to** and **need to**, but here we **cannot omit** the word "**to**" in any case!

Other **Substitute Modals** or **almost-Semi-Modals** are: appear to, avoid to, decide to, hope to, like to, love to, seem to, want to, wish to.

And here are the most important "**to be**"-compound **Substitute Modal Verbs**:

- **be to** as *am / is / are / was / were to*
- **be about to** as *am / is / are / was / were about to*
- **be going to** as *am / is / are / was / were going to*
- **be able to** as *am / is / are / was / were able to*
- **be allowed to** as *am / is / are / was / were allowed to*
- **be supposed to** as *am / is / are / was / were supposed to*
- **be expected to** as *am / is / are / was / were expected to*

The Past forms of Modal Verbs are not necessarily used to refer to past time, and in some cases they are even synonyms for Present forms. as **all these so-called Past forms are very often used in the Subjunctive Mood in the present tense**. The Modal Verbs **may** and **let** are also used often in the Subjunctive Mood. Famous examples of these are "May The Force be with you," and "Let God bless you with good." These are both sentences that express some uncertainty, hence they are Subjunctive sentences.

The following Verbs mostly share the above features, but with certain differences. They are sometimes categorised as "Semimodals".

- The Modal Verb **ought** differs from the other Modal Verbs only in that it governs a *to*-Infinitive (in positive statements only, not in negative statements or questions!) rather than a bare Infinitive (compare *he should go* with *he ought to go*).

- The Verbs **dare** and **need** can be used as Modal Verbs, often in the negative (*Dare he fight?*; *You dare not do that.*; *You need not go.*; *You can do the work later if it need be.*), although they are more commonly found in constructions where they appear as ordinary inflected Verbs (*He dares to fight*, *You don't need to go*).
- The Verb **had** in the expression **had better** behaves like a Modal Verb, hence **had better** (considered as a compound Verb) is sometimes classed as a Modal Verb or Semimodal.
- The Verb **used** in the expression **used to** (*do something*) can behave as a true Modal Verb, but it is also often used with **do-support**: *Did she used to do it?* or: *Did she use to do it?* and *She did not used to do it* or: *She did not use to do it* are more common than *Used she to do it?* or: *Used she not to do it?* and *She used to do it.* or: *She used not to do it.*

Other English **Helper Verbs** appear in a variety of different forms and are not regarded as Modal Verbs. These are:

- **be**, used as an Helper Verb in Passive Voice and Continuous Aspect constructions; it follows auxiliary-verb syntax even when used in auxiliary-like formations such as **be going to**, **be to** and **be about to**;
- **have**, used as a Helper Verb in Perfect Aspect constructions, including the idiom **have got (to)**; it is also used in **have to**, which has Modal meaning, but here (as when denoting possession) **have** only rarely follows Helper Verb-Verb syntax (see also **must** below);
- **do**; used as a Helper Verb for questions and negations.

Origin of the Modal Verbs

In order to understand the odd behaviour of the Modal Verbs, we should take a look back into history. The Modal Verbs **will** and **would** are from Anglo-Saxon or Old English **wille** and **wolde**, respectively Present and Past forms of **willan** ("to wish, want"); Similarly, **shall** and **should** are from **sceal** and **sceolde**, respectively Present and Past forms of **sculan** ("to owe, be obliged", Dutch and German: schulden); **can** and **could** are from **can(n)** and **cup**, which were respectively Present and Past forms of the Verb **cunnan** ("to be able"). The silent *l* in the spelling of **could** results from analogy with **would** and **should**, that was wrongly assumed by uneducated early writers. **may** and **might** are from Old English **mæg** and **meahte**, respectively Present and Past forms of **magan** ("may, to be able").

The aforementioned Old English Verbs **willan**, **sculan**, **cunnan**, and **magan** followed the Present-Past pattern (or in the case of **willan**, a similar but irregular pattern), which explains the absence of the ending -s in the third person on the Present forms **can**, **may**, **shall** and **will**. (The original Old English forms given above were first and third person singular forms; their descendant forms became generalised to all persons and numbers.) The Verb **must** comes from Old English **moste**, part of the Verb **motan** ("to be able to, be obliged to"). This was another Present-Past Verb, of which **moste** was in fact the Past (the Present form **mot** gave rise to **mote**, which was used as a Modal Verb in Early Modern English; but **must** has now lost its past connotations and has replaced **mote**). Similarly, **ought** was originally a Past form – it derives from **ahte**, the Past of **agan** ("to own"),

another Old English Present-Past Verb, whose Present tense form **ah** has given the modern (regular) verb **owe** (and **ought** was formerly used as a Past tense of **owe**).

The Verb **dare** also originates from a Present-Past verb, **durran** ("to dare"), specifically its present tense **dear(r)**, although in its non-modal uses in Modern English it is conjugated regularly. However, **need** comes from the regular Old English verb **neodian** (meaning "to be necessary") – the alternative third person form **need** (in place of **needs**), which has become the norm in modal uses, became common in the 16th century.

Comparison with other Germanic Languages

Many English Modal Verbs have related words in other Germanic languages, although with different meanings in some cases. We can learn from these differences. Unlike the English Modal Verbs, however, these Verbs are not generally defective. They can inflect, and have forms such as Infinitives, Participles and an extra Future tense Modal Verb (for example **werden** in German or **worden** in Dutch). Examples of such related words include:

- in **German**: **wollen**, **sollen**, **können**, **mögen**, **müssen** are related words of **will**, **shall**, **can**, **may** and **must**. Although German shares five Modal Verbs with English, their meanings are often quite different. In fact they are much more direct and they have the meaning our Modals used to have in the 7th century. *Wollen* means "will" only in the sense of "want to" and

is not used to form the future tense. *Sollen*, *können*, and *müssen* are used similarly as English "shall", "can", and "must". Note, however, that the negation of *müssen* is a literal one in German, not an inverse one as in English. In other words: the German *ich muss* ("I must") means "I am bound to do it", and *ich muss nicht* (literally the same as "I must not") accordingly means "I am not bound to do it". *Mögen* does not mean "to be allowed" but "may" as a Modal Verb and "to like to" as normal Verb. The English "to have to" behaves the same way, whereas English "must" expresses an interdiction when negated. *brauchen* (need) is sometimes used like a Modal Verb, especially negated ("Er braucht nicht kommen", "He does not need to come").

- in **Dutch** (and the ancient **Anglo-Saxon** language that came from northern Germany): *willen*, *zullen*, *kunnen*, *mogen*, *moeten*; are related words of *will*, *shall*, *can*, *may*, and *must*. But they generally have the same corresponding meanings in modern German. The Future tense is built with "**worden**".
- in **Swedish**: *vilja*, *ska(II)*, *kunna*, *må* (past tense: *måtte*), *måsta*, related words of *will*, *shall*, *can*, *may/might*, *must*. They generally have the same corresponding meanings in English, with the exception of "**vilja**", which means, like in German, "to want to". The Future tense is built with "**skall**".
- in **Danish** and **Norwegian**: *ville*, *skulle*, *kunne*, *måtte*, are related words of *will*, *shall*, *can*, *may*, and *must*. generally have the same corresponding meanings in English. The Future tense is built with "**ville**" and "**skall**".

Why are English Modal Verbs so irregular and defective? The original Old English was a Germanic dialect, brought to England (Angeland) by Anglo-Saxon settlers from northern Germany in the 5th and 6th centuries. In the 9th and 10th centuries then came other Germanic speaking people from Denmark and Norway, the Vikings, to the north-eastern part of Anglo-Saxon England. That was the reason why the talk between people of these two nations became troublesome.

When two kinds of peoples with so similar languages come together, each single speaker begins to avoid to use similar word forms which can cause misunderstandings. Normally, this development has an exchange in forms as a result but also a reduction. Certain forms fall out of use. Similar words or word endings disappear. This is why in modern English we use the simpler Modal Verb forms of Viking Germanic and also other words such as some Prepositions, some Personal and some other Pronouns. In fact, the entire English grammar underwent a radical revolution towards simplification.

Since Modal Verbs in other Germanic languages are not defective, the problem of *double Modals* does not arise: the second Modal Verb in such a construction simply takes the Infinitive form, as would any non-Modal Verb in the same position. Compare the following translations of English "I **want** to **be able to** dance", all of which translate literally as "I **want can** dance".

- **German**: *Ich will tanzen können.*
- **Dutch**: *Ik wil kunnen dansen.*
- **Danish**: *Jeg vil kunne danse.*
- **Swedish**: *Jag vill kunna dansa.*

Common Defectives

The most commonly recognised defective Verbs in English are Auxiliary Verbs—the class of Present-Past verbs— *will / would, shall / should, can / could, may / might, must, and ought to*. Though these Verbs were originally not defective, but in most varieties of today's English, they occur only in a Modal Verb sense. However, unlike normal Helper Verbs, they are not regularly conjugated as people did not see it necessary. Therefore, these defective Auxiliaries do not accept each other as Objects. Additionally, they do not regularly appear as Participles.

For example, **can** lacks an Infinitive, Future tense, Participle, Imperative, and Gerund. The missing parts of speech are instead supplied by using the appropriate forms of **to be** plus **able to**. So, while ***I could do it*** and ***I was able to do it*** are equivalent, one cannot say ****I will can*** which is instead expressed as ***I will be able to***. Similarly, **must** has no true past tense form, this instead being supplied by **had** the past tense of have, and **"to have to"** in the infinitive, an example of composite conjugation. The past tense expressing the obligatory aspect of must is expressed as **"had to,"** as in ***He had to go***. **"Must have"**, on the other hand, expresses probability or likelihood in modern English, e.g., ***If that is thunder, there must have been lightning***."

Some verbs are becoming more defective as time goes on; for example, although **might** is originally the Past tense of **may**, it is no longer only used as such (**he might not pass* for "he was forbidden to

pass"). Similarly, **should** is no longer only used as the Past of **shall**, but also with a separate meaning indicating possibility or moral obligation. (However, the use of the Past form **should** as a Subjunctive form continues, as in ***If I should go there tomorrow, ...***, which contrasts with the indicative form ***I shall go there tomorrow***.) The defective verb **ought** was originally the Past tense of **owe** (***the affection he ought his children***), but it has since split off, leaving **owe** as a non-defective Verb with its original sense and a regular Past tense (*owed*).

*Note that **will** is only partly defective. It has no Infinitive and no form for the 3rd Person Singular, but it has the Present Participle **willing** as well as two Past Participles: **would** and **willed** !*

Syntax

A Modal Verb serves as an auxiliary to another verb, which appears in Infinitive form (the bare infinitive, or the *to*-infinitive in the cases of *ought* and *used* as discussed above). Examples: *You must escape*; *This may be difficult*.

The verb governed by the modal may be another auxiliary (necessarily one that can appear in infinitive form – this includes *be* and *have*, but not another modal, except in the non-standard cases described below in the paragraph about Double Modals). Hence a modal may introduce a chain (technically catena) of verb forms, in

which the other auxiliaries express properties such as Aspect and Voice, as in *He **must have been given** a new job.*

Modals can appear in question tags and other elliptical sentences without the governed Verb being expressed: *...can he?; I **mustn't**; Would they?*

Like other auxiliaries, Modal Verbs are negated by the addition of the word **not** after them. (The modification of meaning may not always correspond to simple negation, as in the case of *must not*.) The modal *can* combines with *not* to form the single word *cannot*. Most of the modals have contracted negated forms in *n't* which are commonly used in informal English: *can't, mustn't, won't* (from *will*), etc.

Again like other auxiliaries, modal verbs undergo inversion with their subject, in forming questions and in the other cases described in the article on Subject–Auxiliary inversion: *Could you do this?; On no account may you enter.* When there is negation, the contraction with *n't* may undergo inversion as an auxiliary in its own right: *Why can't I come in?* (or: *Why can I not come in?*).

Past Forms

The preterite (past) forms given above (*could, might, should* and *would*, corresponding to *can, may, shall* and *will*, respectively) do not always simply modify the meaning of the modal to give it past time reference. The only one regularly used as an ordinary Past tense is

could, when referring to ability: *I could swim* may serve as a past form of *I can swim*.

All the preterites are used as past equivalents for the corresponding present modals in indirect speech and similar clauses requiring the rules of sequence of tenses to be applied. For example, in 1960 it might have been said that *People **think** that we **will** all be driving hovercars by the year 2000*, whereas at a later date it might be reported that *In 1960, people **thought** we **would** all be driving hovercars by the year 2000*. This "Future-in-the-Past" usage of *would* can also occur in independent sentences: *I moved to Green Gables in 1930; I would live there for the next ten years.*

In many cases, in order to give modals past reference, they are used together with a "perfect infinitive", namely the auxiliary *have* and a past participle, as in *I should have asked her; You may have seen me*. Sometimes these expressions are limited in meaning; for example, *must have* can only refer to certainty, whereas past obligation is expressed by an alternative phrase such as *had to* (see the paragraph about Replacements for defective forms).

Conditional Sentences

The Past forms of Modal Verbs are used in counterfactual conditional sentences, in the *then*-clause. The Modal Verb **would** (sometimes **should** as a first-person alternative) is used to produce the conditional construction which is typically used in clauses of this type:

*If you loved me, you **would support** me.* It can be replaced by *could* (meaning "would be able to") and *might* (meaning "would possibly") as appropriate.

When the clause has past time reference, the construction with the modal plus Perfect Infinitive (see above) is used: *If they (had) wanted to do it, they **would (could/might) have done** it by now.* (The **would have done** construction is called the **Conditional Perfect**.)

The **if-clause** of such a sentence typically contains the Past tense of a verb (or the Past Perfect construction, in the case of past time reference), without any modal. The Modal Verb **could** may be used here in its role as the Past tense of **can** (*if I could speak French*). However all the Modal Past tenses can be used in such clauses with certain types of hypothetical future reference: *if I should lose* or *should I lose* (equivalent to *if I lose*); *if you would / might / could stop doing that* (usually used as a form of request).

Sentences with the Verb **wish** (and expressions of wish using *if only...*) follow similar patterns to the **if-clauses** referred to above, when they have counterfactual present or past reference. When they express a desired event in the near future, the modal Verb **would** is used: *I wish you would visit me; If only he would give me a sign.*

Replacements for Defective Forms

As noted above, English Modal Verbs are **defective** in that they do not have Infinitive, Participle, Imperative or (standard) Subjunctive forms, and in some cases past forms. However in many cases there exist equivalent expressions that carry the same meaning as the Modal Verb, and can be used to supply the missing forms. In particular:

- The Modal Verbs **can** and **could**, in their meanings expressing ability, can be replaced by **am / is / are able to** and **was / were able to**. Additional forms are: the Infinitive **(to) be able to**, the Subjunctive and (rarely) imperative **be able to**, and the participles **being able to** and **been able to**.
- The Modal Verbs **may** and **might**, in their meanings expressing permission, can be replaced by **am / is / are allowed to** and **was / were allowed to**.
- The Modal Verb **must** in most meanings can be replaced by **have/has (got) to**. This supplies the Past form **had (better) to**, and other forms **(to) have to, having to**.
- When **will** or **shall** expresses the future, the expression **am / is / are going to** has similar meaning. This can supply other forms: **was / were going to, (to) be going to, being / been going to**.
- The Modal Verbs **should** and **ought to** might be replaced by **am / is / are supposed to**, thus supplying the forms **was / were supposed to, (to) be supposed to, being / been supposed to**.

Contractions and Reduced Pronunciation

As already mentioned, most of the Modal Verbs in combination with **not** form commonly used contractions: *can't*, *won't*, etc. Some of the Modal Verbs also have contracted forms themselves:

- The Verb **will** is often contracted to **'ll**; the same contraction may also represent **shall**.
- The Verb **would** (or **should**, when used as a first-person equivalent of *would*) is often contracted to **'d**.
- The **had** of **had better** is also often contracted to **'d**. (The same contraction is also used for other cases of *had* as an auxiliary.)

Mind that these contractions or short forms mainly appear in spoken language when the speaker speaks fast. They do not apply in writing. Contractions can confuse the listeners as they can have several different meanings as in the contraction **'d** for **had**, **should**, or **would**.

Double Modals or Double Modal Verbs

Double Modal Verbs regularly occur in all the closely related Germanic languages. In formal standard English usage, however, one Modal Verb cannot directly be followed by another, as **a Modal Verb must be followed by an Infinitive**.

Due to the fact that a true Modal Verb has no Infinitive, it can only be directly followed by a Substitute Modal Verb, such as **have to**, which in

spite of its function is not a true Modal Verb. Thus, **might have to** is acceptable, but **might must** is not, even though **must** and **have to** can normally be used interchangeably.

A greater variety of Double Modal Verbs appear in some regional dialects. In English of the south of the United States, for example, phrases such as **might could**, **may can** or **ought to should** are sometimes used in conversation. The Double Modal Verb may sometimes be redundant, as in "*I ought to should do something about it*", where **ought to** and **should** are synonymous and either one could be removed from the sentence. In other Double Modal Verbs, the two Modal Verbs convey different meanings, such as "*I might could do something about it tomorrow*", where **could** indicates the ability to complete a task but **might** shows uncertainty about actually completing that task.

These kinds of Double Modal Verb phrases are not regarded as standard, although a combination of a Modal with a modal-like construction may be used instead. "*I might could do something about it*" is more often expressed as "*I might be able to do something about it*", which is considered more standard. Similarly **used to could**, is usually expressed as **used to be able to**. Double Modals can also be avoided by replacing one of the Modal Verbs with an appropriate Adverb, such as using **probably could** or **might possibly** in place of **might could**.

Meaning And Usage Of Each English Auxiliary Verb

It is necessary that we understand (as fully and precisely as possible) the meaning and usage of the Helper Verbs (Auxiliary Verbs) *be*, *have*, *do* and in particular their close relatives, the Modal Verbs *will*, *shall*, *can*, *may*, *must*, *would*, *should*, *could*, *might*, and *ought* since we use them to change the meaning of our speech!

The Modal Verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must* and *ought to* are defective. It means that those Verbs cannot be conjugated (or formed) in certain *Tenses*, *Aspects*, or *Moods* because they no longer have complete forms. They have no Infinitive and often no Participle, and they have no s-Ending in the *3rd Person Singular*. Modal Verbs cannot be used alone in a sentence. A sentence as "*I can English*" would be considered as utter nonsense. We have to say: *I can speak* (or *understand*) *English*. However, each of those Verbs has an individual meaning. It is important to know their meaning in order to give a sentence the meaning you wish to express.

The Auxiliary Verbs BE, HAVE, DO And DID

"Be" indicates presence in a perceived reality; exist; live: *I think, therefore I am*. USAGE: takes a *Present Participle* and forms the *Continuous / Progressive* tenses representing actions which are still going on: *The man is running*. It takes the *Past Participle* to form the *Passive Voice*: *I am beaten. I am being beaten*. It takes the *Infinitive* with "to" to express intention, expectation or obligation: *The president is to arrive at 9.30*, or: *The president is about to arrive at 9.30*.

"Have" indicates possession and ownership: *I have a book. He has two cars*. USAGE: used as an *Auxiliary* to form compound tenses

expressing completed actions. It takes a *Past Participle*: *I have gone. I had gone*.

"Do" indicates a *deed* or *action* meaning also *to perform* or *complete*: *I do a portrait*. USAGE: used as an *Auxiliary* to form the *Present Intensive*, a tense which emphasises speech in the Present tense, it can take an *Infinitive* without *to*: *I do love fruits*. It is used as a "Helping Verb to form "yes-no"-questions: *Do you have time?* It is used to form negative statements: *I do not agree!*

"Did" is the Past Tense of *do* and indicates a deed or action: *She did it*. It takes an infinitive without *to*: *I did love them*. It is used as a helping verb to form "yes-no"-questions: *Did he come?* It is used to form negative statements: *I did not agree!* USAGE: used as an *Auxiliary* to form an *alternative Past tense*. *Did* is an important "Helping Verb" for beginners because with "did" we can paraphrase (describe) the Past tense. Students may use it particularly to get round of the *Irregular Verbs* in order to form the Past tense in an *analytic* way: Instead of **"I sought"**, we can say **"I did seek"**. Native speakers do this frequently, especially when the Past form of a Verb is identical to its Present Tense form (put, hit etc.)

"Get" can have an astonishing range of meanings. It can substitute lots of Verbs that express "move, come, go, receive, succeed, effect" when followed by a preposition such as "in, out, on, off, away". As a Helper Verb *get* mainly means *to contract* or *to be affected by*. Consequently we use *get* as Helper Verb to express the intensive Passive Voice (in Simple Present and Past) as in: *Get your hair cut, Get to be the leader*. We build the Past tense then with *did*: *She does get wet, She did get wet; I do get it done, I did get it done, He does get it done, He did get it done, I do get fed up, I did get fed up*.

The 10 Modal Verbs - Detailed Explanation

“Shall” indicates determination on the part of the speaker, as in issuing a threat: *you shall pay for this!* It indicates compulsion, especially in official documents. Furthermore, it indicates certainty or inevitability: *Our day shall come!* With a Noun or Pronoun as Subject, it can express doubt. It can indicate nonspecific futurity. USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to form the *Future* of the *1st Person Singular and Plural*, it takes an *Infinitive* without *to*.

“Should” as the Past form of **shall** indicates that an action is considered by the speaker to be obligatory: *You should go.* With *should* we also can paraphrase the *Subjunctive Mood* (which, as a real Verb form, fell out of use some hundred years ago. The only surviving true Subjunctive Verb is *were*: *I wish I were here.*): *I should like to see you.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to form the *Subjunctive Mood* and takes an *Infinitive* without *to*.

“Will”, in its original meaning, stands for *wish* and *desire* expressing the faculty of conscious and deliberate choice of action and can express resolution on the part of the speaker: *I will take revenge - and if it is the last thing I do!* It can indicate willingness or desire: *Will you help me with this problem?* It can express ability: *This rope will support the load.* It stands also for probability or expectation: *That will be Jane telephoning.* It indicates customary practice or inevitability: *Boys will be boys.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to form the *Future* of the *2nd and 3rd Person Singular and Plural*, it takes an infinitive without *to*.

“Would” is the Past form of **will** and can describe a past action as being *accustomed* or *habitual*: *Every day we would go for walks.* It

can indicate willingness or desire in a polite manner: *Would you help me, please?* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to form the *Past tense* or *Subjunctive Mood* of *will*, it takes an *Infinitive* without *to*.

“Can” indicates ability, skill, or fitness to perform a task: *I can run.* Like *may*, it indicates permission or the right to something: *Can I have a drink?* It shows knowledge of how to do something: *She can speak four languages.* It can express the possibility, opportunity or likelihood: *My trainer says I can win the race.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary, it takes an *Infinitive* without *to*.

“Could” as the Past of **can** is used in polite requests: *Could I see you tonight?* It indicates suggestion of a course of action: *You could take the car if it is raining.* It can express possibility and assumption: *He could well be an artist.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary, it takes an infinitive without *to*.

“May” indicates that permission is requested by or granted to someone: *He may go.* It indicates possibility: *The rope may brake.* It can express ability or capacity, especially in questions: *May I help you?* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to form the *Subjunctive Mood*, it takes an *Infinitive* without *to*.

“Might” is the past form of **may** and expresses possibility: *He might well come.* The difference between *may* and *might* is one of emphasis: *He might be coming* indicates a less certainty than *He may be coming.* Similarly, *Might I have it?* is felt to be more hesitant than *May I have it?* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to form the *Subjunctive Mood* in the Past, it takes an *Infinitive* without *to*.

“Must” can express obligation or compulsion: *You must pay your dues.* Together with the word **“not”** it means prohibition: *You must not harm other people.* It indicates necessity: *I must go to the bank today.* It indicates probable correctness of a statement: *She must be there by now.* It can express resolution on the part of the speaker: *I must finish this.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary, it takes an Infinitive without *to*.

“Ought to” indicates duty or obligation: *You ought to pay.* It can express prudent expediency: *You ought to visit her.* It can express a desire or wish on the part of the speaker: *You ought to come next week.* It is used to advise or make recommendations. It also expresses assumption or expectation as well as strong probability, often with the idea that something is deserved. USAGE: used as an Auxiliary and takes in positive statements an Infinitive with *to*: *You ought to find a new job.* Attention: In negative statements and questions, however, it is used without *to*, especially when it is used to advise against doing something (here Americans prefer the less formal forms “*should not*” or “*had better not*”.): *He ought not drink so much. They ought not carry so much.* In the same way, *to* is also suppressed when used in an inverted question: *Ought we go now? Ought I call you a taxi?*

Note: The usage of *shall* and *will* follow a particular feature. Both mean the same in a positive statement of the Future tense. While *shall* is used only in the 1st person Singular and Plural: *I shall stay. We shall stay.* *Will* is used in the 2nd and 3rd person Singular and Plural: *he, she it, you, they will stay.* The very same rule applies also for the past forms *should* and *would*. However, this rule is often ignored in a simple statement and people say *I will, we will*, because they often use the contracted form which is *I'll* and *we'll*. Attention: Do not ignore this rule in questions: *Shall we go?* (not: *Will we go?*)

Semi-Modal Verbs - Detailed Explanation

“Be going to” can indicate future actions expressing a plan: *I am going to leave*, or indicating prediction: *Alice is going to make a lavish dinner tonight* (Active). *A lavish dinner is going to be made by Alice tonight* (Passive). USAGE: can build an alternative Future tense and takes an infinitive with *to* when used as an Auxiliary.

“Have to” and the stronger **“have got to”** can substitute *must* and has the meaning of obligation and compulsion. Together with the word **“not”** it stands for “*need not*”: *You do not have to do it.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to substitute *must*, it takes an Infinitive with *to*.

“Had (to)” can substitute *must*, *ought to* and *should*. USAGE: used as an Auxiliary to substitute *must*, it takes an infinitive with *to*: *You better had to pay.* In a negative sentence: *They had better not drink so much.*

“Need to” can express 'to be in want of': *He needs money.* It indicates obligation: *She needs to be in time.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary and takes an Infinitive without *to*. It can build the opposite of 'must' when expressed with "not": *You do not need to leave!*

“Used to” indicates customary practice or habitual actions: *He is used to have lunch at 12 o'clock.* USAGE: used as an Auxiliary and takes an Infinitive with *to*.

“Dare to” can take an Infinitive with or without "to": *I dare say!*

“Be (about) to” can express the future, a planned action or an expectation: *She is (about) to arrive at 3 o'clock p.m.*

Practise The Usage Of The English Modal Verbs

Chinese students are slightly irritated by the usage and meaning of English Modal Verbs. The usage of the English Modal Verbs has to be practised in order to grasp their real meaning! Just put the following examples in a common sentence such as: *I drive a big car; I will drive a big car; Will I drive a big car? I will not drive a big car; Will I not drive a big car?* Their range of meaning is much wider than in Chinese, and occasionally their meaning can overlap with another one. The intensity of obligation increases in these examples: *I ought to drive the big car; I should drive the big car; I must drive the big car; I have to drive the big car; I have got to drive the big car.*

Below you can see common examples of the English Modal Verb together with their closest Chinese translation and the Pinyin transcription, so you have a better chance to compare them.

“Will” expresses your own will or desire.

(表达了你的意愿和渴望):

I will!	我会的!	wǒ huì de !
Will I?	我会吗?	wǒ huì ma ?
I will not!	我不会的!	wǒ bù huì de !
Will I not?	我不会吗?	wǒ bù huì ma ?

“Would” reflects your will but only under certain conditions: *I would drive a big car if I had money to buy one.*

(反映了在某种条件下, 你的意愿):

I would!	我想!	wǒ xiǎng !
Would I?	我想吗?	wǒ xiǎng ma ?
I would not!	我不想!	wǒ bù xiǎng !
Would I not?	我不想吗?	wǒ bù xiǎng ma ?

“Shall” says that I will do it, because *others* want me to.

(表示我将要去做, 因为他人想让我去做):

I shall!	我将要!	wǒ jiāngyào !
Shall I?	我将要.....吗?	wǒ jiāngyào.....ma ?
I shall not!	我将不会!	wǒ jiāng bù huì !
Shall I not?	我将不会.....吗?	wǒ jiāng bù huì.....ma ?

“Should” is used when I am *convinced* that it is better to do it.

(用于我被说服最好应该那么做):

I should!	我应该!	wǒ yīnggāi !
Should I?	我应该.....吗?	wǒ yīnggāi.....ma ?
I should not!	我不应该!	wǒ bù yīnggāi !
Should I not?	我不应该.....吗?	wǒ bù yīnggāi.....ma ?

“Can” expresses ability (to be able to) , but also permission (may).

(表示一种能力, 同样也可表示一种允许和可能性):

I can!	我能!	wǒ néng !
Can I?	可以吗?	kěyǐ ma ?
I cannot!	我不能!	wǒ bùnéng !
Can I not?	我可以不.....吗?	wǒ kěyǐ bù.....ma ?

“Could” expresses possibility, asks for permission in a polite way.

(表示一种可能性, 用一种礼貌的方式询问是否可以):

I could!	我可以/能!	wǒ kěyǐ/néng !
Could I?	可以吗?	kěyǐ ma ?
I could not!	我不能!	wǒ bùnéng !
Could I not?	我可以不.....吗?	wǒ kěyǐ bù.....ma ?

“May” stands for allowing and asking for permission in a polite way.
(用于表示允许和礼貌性的征求他人意见):

I may!	我可能!	wǒ kěnéng !
May I?	我可以吗?	wǒ kěyǐ ma ?
I may not!	我不可.....!	wǒ bù kěyǐ..... !
May I not?	我可以不.....吗?	wǒ kěyǐ bù.....ma ?

“Might” supports an uncertain idea or probability.

(支持于不确定的观点或可能性):

I might!	我可能!	wǒ kěnéng !
Might I?	我可能.....吗?	wǒ kěnéng.....ma ?
I might not!	我可能不.....!	wǒ kěnéng bù..... !
Might I not?	我可以不.....?	wǒ kěyǐ bù..... ?

“Must” expresses an obligation as a fact.

(陈述现实中的一种义务):

I must!	我必须!	wǒ bìxū !
Must I?	我必须吗?	wǒ bìxū ma ?
I must not!	我不能!	wǒ bùnéng !
Must I not?	我不能吗?	wǒ bùnéng ma ?

“Ought to” also stands for obligation, but more in a moral sense.

(表示一种义务, 但更多的是道德意识):

I ought to!	我应该!	wǒ yīnggāi !
Ought I?	我应该.....吗?	wǒ yīnggāi.....ma ?
I ought not to!	我实在不应该!	wǒ shí zài bù yīnggāi !
Ought I not?	我不应该.....吗?	wǒ bù yīnggāi.....ma ?

“Had” means the same as **“ought to”**, to consider preferable that: *You had better go! I had rather you left at once!*

(和“ought to”相同, 考虑更好的: 你最好走! 我宁愿你立刻离开!):

I had!	我应该!	wǒ yīnggāi !
Have I had?	我应该吗?	wǒ yīnggāi ma ?
I had not!	我不应该!	wǒ bù yīnggāi !
Have I not had?	我不应该.....吗?	wǒ bù yīnggāi.....ma ?

“Need to” shows necessity rather than pure obligation.

(表示一种需要而不是一种职责):

I need to!	我需要!	wǒ xūyào !
Do I need to?	我需要.....吗?	wǒ xūyào.....ma ?
I do not need to!	我不需要!	wǒ bù xūyào !
Do I not need to?	我不需要吗?	wǒ bù xūyào ma ?

“To be going to” means **“will or shall”** but is stronger in emphasis.

(和“will or shall”一样, 表示将要, 但语气更强一些):

I am going to!	我将要!	wǒ jiāngyào !
Am I going to?	我将要.....吗?	wǒ jiāngyào.....ma ?
I am not going to!	我将不会!	wǒ jiàng bù huì !
Am I not going to?	我将不会.....吗?	wǒ jiàng bù huì.....ma ?

“To be able to” stands for ability, but is stronger than **“can”**.

(表示一种能力, 但比 **“can”**能力更强一些):

I am able to!	我能!	wǒ néng !
Am I able to?	我能.....吗?	wǒ néng.....ma ?
I am not able to!	我不能!	wǒ bù néng !
Am I not able to?	我不能.....吗?	wǒ bù néng.....ma ?

"Have to" and *"got to"* have the same meaning as *"must"* but are emotional and therefore stronger

(和"must"一样，表示必须，但在情感上更强一些):

I have to!	我必须!	wǒ bīxū !
Do I have to?	我必须.....吗?	wǒ bīxū.....ma ?
I do not have to!	我不能!	wǒ bùnéng !
Do I not have to?	我不能.....吗?	wǒ bùnéng.....ma ?

I have got to	我必须!	wǒ bīxū !
Have I got to?	我必须.....吗?	wǒ bīxū.....ma ?
I have not got to!	我不能!	wǒ bùnéng !
Have I not got to?	我不能.....吗?	wǒ bùnéng.....ma ?

"Want" refers to an immediate desire just as *"should / would like to"* but is regarded as demanding and therefore can sound impolite!

(适用于立即的需求，就像*"should / would like to"*一样表示想要，但被当做一种要求，所以听起来不是很礼貌):

I want (to)!	我要!	wǒ yào !
Do I want (to)?	我要吗?	wǒ yào ma ?
I do not want (to)!	我不要!	wǒ bù yào !
Do I not want (to)?	我不想吗?	wǒ bù yào ma ?

I should like to!	我想要!	wǒ xiǎngyào !
Should I like to?	我想要吗?	wǒ xiǎngyào ma ?
I should not like to!	我不想要!	wǒ bù xiǎngyào !
Should I not like to?	我不想要吗?	wǒ bù xiǎngyào ma ?

"Would have to" expresses a possible or even probable obligation: *I would have to change my plans if he had not come.*

(表示一种可能性或者甚至是一种可能的义务职责：如果他还没来，我可能会改变我的计划):

I would have to!	我可能会!	wǒ kěnéng huì !
Would I have to?	我可能会吗?	wǒ kěnéng huì ma ?
I would not have to!	我不可能!	wǒ bù kěnéng !
Would I not have to?	我不可能吗?	wǒ bù kěnéng ma ?

"Like" is not a *Modal Verb*. I nonetheless show *"I like"* here because people often mix it up with *"I'd like"*, particular when that contraction is not spoken out clearly. This is one of the reasons why I always recommend to teach, to learn, and indeed, to use the full forms such as *"I should like"* or *"I would like"*, at least in the beginning.

(*"Like"*不是情态动词，尽管如此，这里的*"I like"*人们通常会把它和*"I'd like"*混淆，尤其是在缩写未能表达清楚时。这就是为什么我经常使用完整形式，比如说，*"I should like"* or *"I would like"*):

I like!	我喜欢!	wǒ xǐhuān !
Do I like?	我喜欢吗?	wǒ xǐhuān ma ?
I do not like!	我不喜欢!	wǒ bù xǐhuān !
Do I not like?	我不喜欢吗?	wǒ bù xǐhuān ma ?

Some Example Sentences:

The usage of English *Modal Verbs* (Mood Verbs!) may appear somewhat inexact in the viewpoint of a Chinese learner, because they reflect the emotions of the speaker. However, the following examples give you a rough idea about their meaning and usage:

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I will go now!	我现在就去！	wǒ xiàn zài jiù qù !
I shall eat now!	我现在就要吃！	wǒ xiàn zài jiù yào chī !
I can write it down!	我能把它写下来！	wǒ néng bǎ tā xiě xiàlai !
I may do it!	我可能会做！	wǒ kě néng huì kuài zuò !
I must go now!	我现在必须走了！	wǒ xiàn zài bì xū zǒu le !
I would think about it!	我会考虑一下的！	wǒ huì kǎo lǚ yī xià de !
I should stop!	我应该停止！	wǒ yīnggāi tíng zhǐ !
I could help you!	我可以帮你！	wǒ kěyǐ bāng nǐ !
I might leave now!	我可能现在就离开！	wǒ kěnéng xiànzài jiù lí kāi !
I ought to sleep now!	我应该现在就睡觉！	wǒ yīnggāi xiànzài jiù shuì jiào !
I need to sleep now!	我现在需要睡觉！	wǒ xiànzài xūyào shuì jiào !
I have to sleep now!	我现在要睡觉了！	wǒ xiànzài yào shuì jiào le !
I had to leave!	我不得不离开！	wǒ bù dé bù lí kāi !
I am going to wash my hands!	我要洗我的手！	wǒ yào xǐ wǒde shǒu !
I want some fruits!	我想要一些水果！	wǒ xiǎngyào yīxiē shuǐ guǒ !
I should like some water!	我想要一些水！	wǒ xiǎngyào yī xiē shuǐ !
Will you go now?	你要走了吗？	nǐ yào zǒu le ma ?
Shall we eat now?	我们现在可以吃吗？	wǒmen xiànzài kěyǐ chī ma ?
Can you write it down?	你可以把它写下来吗？	nǐ kěyǐ bǎ tā xiě xiàlai ma ?
May I do it?	我可以做吗？	wǒ kěyǐ zuò ma ?
Must I go now?	我必须走了吗？	wǒ bìxū zǒu le ma ?
Would you think about it?	你会考虑一下吗？	nǐ huì kǎo lǚ yī xià ma ?
Should I stop?	我应该停下来吗？	wǒ yīnggāi tíngxià lái ma ?
Could you help me?	你能帮我吗？	nǐ néng bāng wǒ ma ?
Might he leave now?	他现在可以离开吗？	tā xiànzài kěyǐ líkāi ma ?
Ought I sleep now?	我现在应该睡觉吗？	wǒ xiànzài yīnggāi shuì jiào ma ?

Do I need to sleep now?	我现在需要睡觉吗？	wǒ xiànzài xūyào shuì jiào ma ?
Do I have to sleep now?	我现在要睡觉吗？	wǒ xiànzài yào shuìjiào ma ?
Did you have to leave?	你要离开吗？	nǐ yào líkāi ma ?
Are you going to wash your hands?	你要洗手吗？	nǐ yào xǐ shǒu ma ?
Do you want some fruits?	你想要一些水果吗？	nǐ xiǎngyào yīxiē shuǐ guǒ ma ?
Would you like some water?	你想要喝点水吗？	nǐ xiǎngyào hē diǎn shuǐ ma ?
I will go home tomorrow!	我明天要回家！	wǒ míngtiān yào huí jiā !
We shall eat some noodles!	我们将要吃一些面条！	wǒmen jiāngyào chī yī xiē miàn tiáo !
I can read the newspaper!	我能看报纸！	wǒ néng kàn bào zhǐ !
You may go upstairs!	你可以上楼去！	nǐ kěyǐ shàng lóu qù !
We must go downstairs!	我们必须下楼！	wǒmen bìxū xià lóu !
I would travel if I had money!	我想要旅行，如果我有钱！	wǒ xiǎngyào lǚ xíng, rúguǒ wǒ yǒu qián !
We should wait for her!	我们应该等她！	wǒmen yīng gāi děng tā !
I could buy some drinks!	我可以买一些饮料！	wǒ kěyǐ mǎi yī xiē yǐn liào !
I might have no time!	我可能没有时间！	wǒ kěnéng méiyǒu shí jiān !
You ought to wake up!	你应该醒了！	nǐ yīnggāi xǐng le !
I need some warm water!	我需要一些温水！	wǒ xūyào yī xiē wēn shuǐ !
I have to go to bed now!	我必须去睡觉了！	wǒ bìxū qù shuì jiào le !
I had to build a new house!	我必须建立一个新的房子！	wǒ bìxū jiàn lì yī gè xīn de fáng zi !
I am going to get more money!	我会得到更多的钱！	wǒ huì dédào gēng duō de qián !
I want to go outside!	我要到外面去！	wǒ yào dào wàimian qù !
I should like to stay inside!	我想留在里面！	wǒ xiǎng liú zài lǐmian !

USING GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES - 6 Basic Rules

Most students find the endless list of Verbs to memorise daunting, and most textbooks do not cover the fact that there are a few helpful rules for deciding whether to use a Gerund or an Infinitive in a sentence. Some Basics first: Students often get confused by the various functions of the **Present Participle** (-ing words) in English. It is worth pointing out that the Present Participle has 3 main functions:

1. It can be used as a **Noun**, the so-called Gerund:

The ***talking***; ***Talking*** is important

2. It can be used as an **Adjective**:

The ***talking*** woman

3. It can be used as **Verb** for the *Continuous Aspect* and its tenses.

In this function, the **-ing Verb** always follows any form of the Verb "to be":

I ***am talking***; I ***was talking***

I have ***been talking***; I had ***been talking***

I will ***be talking***; I would ***be talking***

I will have ***been talking***; I would have ***been talking***

Both, **Gerunds** and **Infinitives** are action words in meaning, but they act like Nouns in the sentence. They always take a Noun position as Subject or Object in a sentence. The Gerund and the Infinitive is never the main Verb. Even when the Gerund or the Infinitive is the Object of a sentence, it is common for a second Object to follow the Gerund or Infinitive because of their "verb" meaning: I enjoy watching movies, I do not want to study Physics, I asked my friend to help me.

There are three ways we can use Gerunds and Infinitives:

1. Certain words are followed by an **Infinitive** with or without 'to'.

Usage	Example
as the Subject of a clause	To know you is to love you.
after certain expressions (without 'to')	Why not go to the cinema?
after <u>Modal Verbs</u> (without 'to')	I can swim .
after <u>Modal Verb substitutes</u> (with 'to')	He wants to swim .
after certain Verbs with question words (Infinitive constructions)	They do not know how to swim .
after certain <u>Verbs</u> with Objects (without 'to')	He made her swim .
after certain <u>Verbs</u> with Objects (with 'to')	They wanted him to swim .
after certain <u>Adjectives</u> and their <u>comparisons</u>	It is easier to swim downstream.
after a Noun that come <u>from a Verb</u> (to promise)	We made a promise to swim .

2. Certain words are followed by a **Gerund**.

Usage	Example
as the Subject of a clause	Cycling is good for your health.
after certain <u>Adjectives</u>	He is afraid of going by plane.
after certain <u>Prepositions</u>	Before going to bed he turned off the lights.
after certain <u>Verbs</u>	I enjoy cooking .
after certain <u>Verbs</u> with <u>Prepositions</u>	I am looking forward to seeing you again.
after certain <u>Nouns</u>	We had problems finding our way back home.

3. Words followed either by an **Infinitive** or by a **Gerund**

Usage	Example
same meaning	I started to read. / I started reading.
same meaning but different use	She forbids us to talk. / She forbids talking.
Attention: different meaning!	He stopped to smoke. / He stopped smoking.
Infinitive or Present Participle	I saw him go up the stairs. / I saw him going up the stairs.

Before I show you the Gerunds versus Infinitives in detail, we should have a look at the 6 most basic rules for applying Gerunds.

The Three Basic Gerund Rules

1. Subject = Gerund

In most cases, ***using an Infinitive is possible and correct***, but it is very ***formal***, it sounds ***stiff*** and it is ***not very common*** in this position. When you need an action as a Subject, use a Gerund: ***Reading*** is my favourite hobby, ***Learning*** English has improved my confidence.

2. Preposition + Gerund

After a Preposition, use a Gerund. This is true for Prepositions that are part of Phrasal Verbs, too: I *thought about* ***calling*** my grandma, but I was too tired; Are you *planning on* ***going*** to the party? (Mind: *planning* is not a Gerund here, but the Present Continuous tense.)

3. Verb + Gerund

A Gerund or an Infinitive can be used after a main Verb. It depends on the Verb, and there is ***NO EASY RULE*** for this case. It is helpful when you try to memorise the most common Verbs that take a Gerund, such as *advise, avoid, enjoy, finish, practice, quit, and suggest*: My teacher ***advised studying*** for the quiz; They ***enjoy making*** crafts in class.

*Do not forget that some Verbs (such as: like, love, and hate) can take either a Gerund or an Infinitive with no change in meaning: She ***likes watching*** movies; She ***likes to watch*** movies.

The Three Basic Infinitive Rules

1. Adjective + Infinitive

After an Adjective, it is common to use an Infinitive Verb. A Gerund is possible in some cases, but an Infinitive is usually the better choice: It is ***fun to play*** video games on the weekend; It was ***helpful to learn*** these grammar rules.

2. Noun + Infinitive

If the main Verb has an Object that is a Noun or a Pronoun, it is almost always followed by an Infinitive Verb instead of a Gerund: Did you ***want me to call*** you? The students ***asked their teacher to help*** them.

Mind: This rule is stronger than the "Verb + Gerund" rule. For example, the Verb "advise" normally takes a Gerund (She ***advised studying*** for the test), but a Noun or Pronoun Object will override this rule (She ***advised her students to study*** for the test).

3. Verb + Infinitive

A Gerund or an Infinitive can be used after a main Verb. It depends on the Verb, and there is ***NO EASY RULE*** for this case. You have to memorise the most common Verbs that take a Infinitive, such as *ask, choose, decide, get, need, plan, promise, and want*: He wants to learn Japanese; We need to clean up this mess.

Gerunds Versus Infinitives In Detail

To use Gerunds or to use Infinitives, that is the question! Learning how to use Gerunds and Infinitives is one of the most challenging aspects of learning English. As I said, there is **NO EASY RULE** for the above shown rules No. 3. For this reason, I am going to show you some examples and forms.

Both, Gerunds and Infinitives can be used as the Subject or the complement of a sentence. However, as Subjects or complements, Gerunds usually sound more like normal, spoken English, whereas Infinitives sound more abstract. In the following sentences, Gerunds sound more natural and would be more common in everyday English. Infinitives emphasise the possibility or potential for something and sound more philosophical. If this sounds confusing, just remember that 90% of the time, you will use a Gerund as the Subject or complement of a sentence. Examples:

Learning is important. normal subject

To learn is important. abstract subject - less common

The most important thing is learning. normal complement

The most important thing is to learn. abstract complement - less common

As the Object of a sentence, it is more difficult to choose between a Gerund or an Infinitive. In such situations, Gerunds and Infinitives are not normally interchangeable. Usually, the main Verb in the sentence determines whether you use a Gerund or an Infinitive.

Examples:

He enjoys swimming. "Enjoy" requires a gerund.

He wants to swim. "Want" requires an infinitive.

1. SOME VERBS ARE FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES.

Examples:

She wants to go to a movie.

Mary needs to talk about her problems.

1.) Examples Of Verbs Followed By Infinitives

1 = verb followed by an infinitive OR an optional noun + an infinitive

3 = verb followed by a gerund OR an infinitive with a difference in meaning

4 = verb followed by a gerund OR an infinitive with little difference in meaning

agree	James agreed <i>to help me.</i>
appear	Her health appeared <i>to be better.</i>
arrange	Mike arranged <i>to stay with his cousin in Dublin.</i>
ask [1]	He asked <i>to leave.</i>
begin [3]	She began <i>to talk.</i>
can't bear [4]	Jane can't bear <i>to be alone.</i>
can't stand [4]	Alice can't stand <i>to work the late shift.</i>
care	Robert does not care <i>to participate in the activity.</i>
cease [4]	The government ceased <i>to provide free healthcare.</i>
choose [1]	We chose <i>to help.</i>
claim	She claimed <i>to be a princess.</i>

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continue [4]	They continued <i>to talk</i> .
decide	We decided <i>to go to Edinburgh</i> .
demand	She demanded <i>to speak to Mrs Taylor</i> .
deserve	He deserves <i>to go to jail</i> .
dread [3]	I dread <i>to think what might happen</i> .
expect [1]	They expect <i>to arrive early</i> .
fail	He failed <i>to get enough money to pay for the new project</i> .
forget [3]	I forgot <i>to lock the door when I left</i> .
get (be allowed to)	Elizabeth gets <i>to go to the concert next week! Why can't I?</i>
happen	Mike happened <i>to be at the bank when it was robbed</i> .
hate [4]	He hates <i>to clean dishes</i> .
hesitate	She hesitated <i>to tell me the problem</i> .
hope	I hope <i>to begin college this year</i> .
intend	We intend <i>to visit you next spring</i> .
learn	I learned <i>to speak Japanese when I was a kid</i> .
like [4]	Josephine likes <i>to read</i> .
love [4]	We love <i>to scuba dive</i> .
manage	He managed <i>to open the door without the key</i> .
need [1,3]	I need <i>to study</i> .
neglect [4]	She neglected <i>to tell me the date of the meeting</i> .
offer	Frank offered <i>to drive us to the supermarket</i> .
plan	We plan <i>to go to Sidney this summer</i> .
prefer [4]	He prefers <i>to eat at 9 o'clock in the morning</i> .
prepare [1]	Lorena prepared <i>to take the test</i> .

pretend	The little boy pretended <i>to be a wild animal</i> .
promise [1]	Sarah promised <i>to stop smoking</i> .
propose [4]	Mabel proposed <i>to pay for the trip</i> .
refuse	The guard refused <i>to let them enter the building</i> .
regret [3]	We regret <i>to inform you that your application was rejected</i> .
remember [3]	Did you remember <i>to lock the door when you left?</i>
seem	Herbert seemed <i>to be disappointed</i> .
start [3]	Walter started <i>to talk really fast</i> .
swear	Yvonne swore <i>to tell the truth</i> .
tend	She tends <i>to be a little shy</i> .
threaten [1]	He threatened <i>to leave forever</i> .
try [3]	Brenton tried <i>to lift the table, but it was too heavy</i> .
vow	Edward vowed <i>to take revenge</i> .
wait	She waited <i>to buy a movie ticket</i> .
want [1]	I want <i>to study Spanish</i> .
wish [1]	I wish <i>to stay</i> .
would like [1] (or: "wish" or "want")	We would like <i>to start now</i> . We wish <i>to start now</i> . We want like <i>to start now</i> .
yearn	Frederick yearns <i>to travel somewhere exotic</i> .

2. SOME VERBS ARE FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS AS OBJECTS.

Examples:

She suggested going to a movie.

Victoria keeps talking about her problems.

2.) Examples Of Verbs Followed By Gerunds

2 = verb followed by a gerund OR a noun + an infinitive

3 = verb followed by a gerund OR an infinitive with a difference in meaning

4 = verb followed by a gerund OR an infinitive with little difference in meaning

admit	He admitted <i>cheating on the test</i> .
advise [2]	The doctor generally advised <i>drinking low-fat milk</i> .
allow [2]	Ireland doesn't allow <i>smoking in bars</i> .
anticipate	I anticipated <i>arriving late</i> .
appreciate	I appreciated <i>her helping me</i> .
avoid	He avoided <i>talking to her father</i> .
begin [4]	I began <i>learning Russian</i> .
cannot bear [4]	He cannot bear <i>having so much responsibility</i> .
can't help	He can't help <i>talking so loudly</i> .
cannot see	I cannot see <i>paying so much money for a car</i> .
can't stand [4]	She cannot stand <i>him smoking in the office</i> .
cease [4]	The government ceased <i>providing free healthcare</i> .
complete	He completed <i>renovating the house</i> .
consider	She considered <i>moving to Cardiff</i> .
continue [4]	They continued <i>talking</i> .
defend	The lawyer defended <i>her making such statements</i> .
delay	Mr Weightman delayed <i>doing his taxes</i> .
deny	He denied <i>committing the crime</i> .
despise	Rosemary despises <i>waking up early</i> .
discuss	We discussed <i>working at the company</i> .
dislike	She dislikes <i>working in the night</i> .

do not mind	I do not mind <i>helping you</i> .
dread [3]	Sabrina dreads <i>getting up early</i> .
encourage [2]	He encourages <i>eating healthy foods</i> .
enjoy	He enjoys <i>hiking</i> .
finish [3]	Susan finished <i>doing her homework</i> .
forget [3]	I forgot <i>giving you my book</i> .
hate [4]	I hate <i>cleaning the bathroom</i> .
imagine	He imagines <i>working there one day</i> .
involve	The job involves <i>traveling to France once a month</i> .
keep	He kept <i>interrupting me</i> .
like [4]	She likes <i>listening to music</i> .
love [4]	I love <i>swimming</i> .
mention	He mentioned <i>going to that college</i> .
mind	Do you mind <i>waiting here for a few minutes</i> .
miss	She misses <i>living near the beach</i> .
need [3]	The aquarium needs <i>cleaning</i> .
neglect [4]	Sometimes she neglects <i>doing her homework</i> .
permit [2]	Ireland does not permit <i>smoking in restaurants</i> .
postpone	He postponed <i>returning to Manchester</i> .
practice	She practiced <i>singing the song</i> .
prefer [4]	He prefers <i>sitting at the back of the cinema</i> .
propose [4]	I proposed <i>having breakfast at the beach</i> .
quit [3]	She quit <i>worrying about the problem</i> .
recall	Tom recalled <i>using his credit card at the store</i> .
recollect	She recollected <i>living in Germany</i> .
recommend	Sophia recommended <i>taking the train</i> .
regret [3]	He regretted <i>saying that</i> .

remember [3]	I remember <i>telling him the address yesterday.</i>
report	He reported <i>her stealing the money.</i>
require [2]	The certificate requires <i>completing two courses.</i>
resent	Irene resented <i>Arthur's being there.</i>
resist	He resisted <i>asking for help.</i>
risk	He risked <i>being caught.</i>
start [4]	He started <i>studying harder.</i>
stop [3]	She stopped <i>working at 5 o'clock.</i>
suggest	They suggested <i>staying at the hotel.</i>
tolerate	I tolerated <i>her talking.</i>
try [3]	Mike tried <i>opening the lock with a paperclip.</i>
understand	I understand <i>his quitting.</i>
urge [2]	They urge <i>recycling bottles and paper.</i>

Gerunds can often be modified with Possessive forms such as his, her, its, your, their, our, John's, Mary's, the machine's, and so on. This makes it clearer who or what is performing the action.

Examples:

I enjoyed *their* singing. They were singing.

She understood *his* saying no to the offer. He said no.

Claudia resented *Julia's* coming late to the dinner. Julia came late to the dinner.

We discussed *the machine's* being broken. The machine is broken.

3. SOME VERBS ARE FOLLOWED BY A NOUN PLUS AN INFINITIVE.

In some situations, the noun is required. In other situations, the Noun is optional.

Examples:

The police ordered the man to stop. Noun is required

She asked to leave. Noun is optional

She asked him to leave. Noun is optional

3.) Examples Of Verbs Followed By Nouns + Infinitives (the NOUN here includes also PRONOUNS and NAMES!)

LIST 3A: VERB + REQUIRED NOUN + INFINITIVE

2 = verb followed by a gerund OR a noun + an infinitive

3 = verb followed by a gerund OR an infinitive with a difference in meaning

List 1: Verb + Required Noun + Infinitive

advise [2]	I advised <i>them to see a doctor.</i>
allow [2]	Ireland does not allow <i>people to smoke in bars.</i>
cause	He caused <i>her to make a mistake.</i>
convince	Ned convinced <i>me to quit my job.</i>
enable	Financial aid enabled <i>the students to pay such expensive tuition fees.</i>
encourage [2]	He encourages <i>his patients to eat healthy foods.</i>
force	The commander forced <i>the soldiers to march in the rain.</i>

get (cause to)	Hazel got <i>George to wash her car.</i>
hire	Mr O'Brian hired <i>Vivian to work as a receptionist.</i>
invite	We invited <i>them to join us.</i>
order	The police ordered <i>him to put his hands in the air.</i>
permit [2]	California does not permit <i>people to fish without a fishing license.</i>
remind	They reminded <i>me to pay the bills before the end of the month.</i>
require [2]	The certificate requires <i>students to complete two courses.</i>
tell	He told <i>me to shut up.</i>
urge [2]	They urge <i>citizens to pay higher taxes.</i>
warn	Mr Hudson warned <i>Brenton not to be late.</i>

LIST 3B: VERB + OPTIONAL NOUN + INFINITIVE
(the NOUN here includes also PRONOUNS and NAMES!)

Notice in the examples below that the Verbs can be followed by an Infinitive or a Noun plus an Infinitive. When a Noun is added, it usually changes who or what is performing the action.

To understand this better, look at the first verb “ask” and its examples. In the first sentence, *she* is asking if *she herself* can leave. In the second sentence, *she* is requesting that *a man* leave. Study the examples below and consider how the optional Noun changes the meaning.

ask	She asked to leave.	She asked <i>him</i> to leave.
choose	I chose to help out.	I chose <i>him</i> to help out.
expect	They expect to arrive early.	The expect <i>him</i> to arrive early.
need [3]	I need to clean the house.	I need <i>her</i> to clean the house.
prepare	They prepared to take the test.	They prepared <i>her</i> to take the test.
promise	She promised to stop smoking	She promised <i>him</i> to stop smoking.
threaten	He threatened to leave forever.	He threatened <i>her</i> to leave forever.
want	I want to study Spanish.	I want <i>my son</i> to study Spanish.
wish	I wish to stay.	I wish <i>him</i> to stay. rare form!
would like	We would like to start now.	We would like <i>him</i> to start now.

4. SOME VERBS ARE USUALLY FOLLOWED BY A GERUND, BUT they can also be followed by a Noun plus Infinitive.

Using a Noun plus Infinitive will usually change who is performing the action.

Examples:

I advised taking the train. in general

I advised him to take the train. He will take the train.

4.) Examples Of Verbs Followed By Either Gerunds Or Nouns + Infinitives

advise	I advised seeing a doctor.	I advised <i>them</i> to see a doctor.
allow	Ireland does not allow smoking in bars.	Ireland does not allow <i>people</i> to smoke in bars.
encourage	He encourages eating healthy foods.	He encourages <i>his patients</i> to eat healthy foods.
permit	California does not permit fishing without a fishing license.	California does not permit <i>people</i> to fish without a fishing license.
require	The certificate requires completing two courses.	The certificate requires <i>students</i> to complete two courses.
urge	They urge paying higher taxes.	They urge <i>citizens</i> to pay higher taxes.

5. THERE ARE MANY "GO + GERUND" EXPRESSIONS used for adventure sports and individual recreational activities.

Examples:

I go swimming every weekend.

Would you ever go skydiving?

Bear in mind that we can exchange "go" for "come" as they are an intellectual pair. And, of course, we can extent "go" and "come" to

Verbal Phrases such as "go in, go out, go on, come in, come out, come on" etc.

5.) Examples Of Go + Gerund

go / come boating	go / come bowling
go / come bungee jumping	go / come camping
go / come canoeing	go / come climbing
go / come dancing	go / come fishing
go / come hiking	go / come horseback riding
go / come hunting	go / come jogging
go / come kayaking	go / come mountain climbing
go / come paragliding	go / come parasailing
go / come rollerblading	go / come running
go / come sailing	go / come scuba diving
go / come shopping	go / come sightseeing
go / come skateboarding	go / come skating
go / come sledding	go / come skiing
go / come skinny-dipping	go / come skydiving
go / come snorkeling	go / come snowboarding
go / come spearfishing	go / come surfing
go / come trekking	go / come water skiing
go / come window shopping	go / come windsurfing

6. GERUNDS ARE USED AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

Most commonly, these are “Verb + Preposition” combinations which are also called Verbal Phrases.

We do not have to memorise these resources, we just need to remember that Gerunds are used **after** Prepositions!

Examples:

They *admitted to* committing the crime.

Dennis *made up for* forgetting my birthday.

He is *thinking about* studying abroad.

7. THERE ARE MANY “ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION” COMBINATIONS and “Noun + Preposition” combinations in English as well.

These are also followed by Gerunds. **List of Adjective + Preposition Combinations Followed by Gerunds** and **List of Noun + Preposition Combinations Followed by Gerunds**.

Once again, we do not have to memorise these resources, we just need to **remember that Gerunds are used after Prepositions!**

Examples:

Sandy is *scared of* flying. adjective + preposition

Nick is *anxious about* taking the examination. Adjective + Preposition

His *interest in* becoming a professional snowboarder was well known. Noun + Preposition

Thomas' *story about* seeing a grizzly bear was really exciting. Noun + Preposition

7.) Examples Of Noun + Preposition Combinations Followed By Gerunds

The following is ONLY A SAMPLE LIST of the most commonly used Noun + Preposition combinations that can be followed by Gerunds.

addiction to	His <i>addiction to</i> surfing the Internet is a problem.
advantage of	He has the <i>advantage of</i> speaking English fluently.
anxiety about	Her <i>anxiety about</i> speaking in public caused her to lose the job.
belief in	His <i>belief in</i> not harming animals was something he learned from his mother.
credit for	She took <i>credit for</i> improving the filing system.
dedication to	His <i>dedication to</i> teaching was impressive.
delay in	The <i>delay in</i> processing the visa caused problems.
devotion to	His <i>devotion to</i> biking allowed him to win the competition.
disadvantage of	The <i>disadvantage of</i> flying is that you can't see the scenery along the way.
experience in	She has a great deal of <i>experience in</i> introducing new products to international markets. With the Noun “experience,” sometimes a Gerund is added without the Preposition “in”. “Experience introducing new products” would also be acceptable.
fear of	His <i>fear of</i> flying made travel difficult.
fondness for	Her <i>fondness for</i> traveling led to her career in the travel industry.

habit of	His <i>habit of</i> smoking in restaurants caused trouble.
interest in	Her career as a pilot evolved out of her <i>interest in</i> flying.
knowledge of	Her <i>knowledge of</i> climbing helped her during the competition.
love of	His <i>love of</i> singing developed when he was a child.
memory of	Their <i>memories of</i> traveling in India will stay with them forever.
preference for	I think his <i>preference for</i> speaking his native language is natural.
process of	The <i>process of</i> painting such a large mural is more complicated than you might think.
reaction to	His <i>reaction to</i> winning the prize was quite funny.
reason for	The main <i>reason for</i> taking the course is to improve your language skills.
regret for	The criminal's <i>regret for</i> committing the crime did not convince the judge.
report on	The magazine's <i>report on</i> choosing the right car was not well researched.
reputation for	Her <i>reputation for</i> lying is well known.
responsibility for	His <i>responsibility for</i> completing the project on time was acknowledged by the company.
story about	I do not know if I believe his <i>story about</i> seeing a crime.
talent for	His <i>talent for</i> learning languages was impressive.

8. ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION COMBINATIONS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

(all Adjectives here are used in an attributive way, and they can be built from the Past Participle of a Verb!)

The following is ONLY A SAMPLE LIST of the most commonly used Adjective + Preposition combinations that can be followed by Gerunds.

accustomed to	Helen is <i>accustomed to</i> having her own office.
addicted to	She is <i>addicted to</i> watching telly.
afraid of	She is <i>afraid of</i> speaking in public.
anxious about	Norma is <i>anxious about</i> making the presentation.
bored of	I am <i>bored of</i> doing the same old job.
capable of	He is <i>capable of</i> winning a gold medal.
committed to	She is <i>committed to</i> improving her English.
concerned about	Nancy was <i>concerned about</i> being late.
content with	Donald is <i>content with</i> winning second place.
dedicated to	The organisation is <i>dedicated to</i> ending poverty.
devoted to	The money will be <i>devoted to</i> protecting the environment.
disappointed with	Nathan was <i>disappointed with</i> coming in third place.
discouraged by	He was <i>discouraged by</i> not getting the job.
excited about	The researcher was <i>excited about</i> going to Antarctica.
famous for	That actor is <i>famous for</i> being extremely weird.
fond of	She is <i>fond of</i> having picnics.
frightened of	She is <i>frightened of</i> being alone at night.

guilty of	The banker was <i>guilty of</i> stealing money.
happy about	He was <i>happy about</i> winning the lottery.
interested in	She is <i>interested in</i> becoming a doctor.
involved in	He was <i>involved in</i> making the movie.
known for	She was <i>known for</i> causing problems.
opposed to	They are <i>opposed to</i> building a new road in the park.
proud of	He was <i>proud of</i> having completed the marathon.
remembered for	She is <i>remembered for</i> protecting mountain gorillas.
responsible for	He is <i>responsible for</i> causing the damage.
scared of	Amanda is <i>scared of</i> being alone at night.
terrified of	Roy is <i>terrified of</i> being attacked by a shark.
tired from	He is <i>tired from</i> working all day.
tired of	Ruth is <i>tired of</i> making dinner every night.
worried about	The hikers were <i>worried about</i> not having enough water.

9. SOME VERBS CAN BE FOLLOWED BY A GERUND OR AN INFINITIVE, but WITH A DIFFERENCE in meaning.

Examples: Nancy *remembered getting* married. Meaning: Nancy has a memory of getting married. In opposite to: Fred *remembered to bring* sunblock to the beach. Meaning: Fred remembered that he needed to bring sunblock.

9.) Examples Of Verbs Followed By Gerunds Or Infinitives (Different Meaning)

These Verbs can be followed by either the Gerund or the Infinitive with a change in meaning.

BEGIN + GERUND

When "begin" is used in non-Continuous tenses, we can either use a Gerund or an Infinitive: She *began singing*. - She *began to sing*.

BEGIN + INFINITIVE

When "begin" is used in Continuous tenses, an Infinitive is used: She *is beginning to sing*.

DREAD + GERUND

Usually "dread" is followed by a Gerund: She *dreaded taking* the test.

DREAD + INFINITIVE

"Dread" is sometimes used with Infinitives such as "think" or "consider." In the sentence above, "dreaded to think" means "did not want to think": He *dreaded to think* of the consequences of his actions.

FORGET + GERUND

"Forget" is the opposite of "remember" they build an intellectual pair. When "forget" is used with a Gerund, it means "to forget that you have done something." The next sentence means that she read the book when she was a kid, and that she has forgot that fact: She forgot *reading* the book when she was a kid. Have we really studied this topic before? I forget reading about it. I told my brother that we had spent Christmas at Granny's house in 2011, but he had forgot *going* there.

FORGET + TO + INFINITIVE

When forget is used with an Infinitive, it means "to forget that you need to do something." The sentence above means that she forgot that she needed to pay the rent: *She forgot **to pay** the rent this month. She keeps forgetting **to bring** his book back. I forgot **to call** my father. (= I wanted to call my father, but when it was a good time to call him, I forgot. I was thinking about something else, and the idea to call my father did not come into my head).*

KEEP + GERUND

"Keep" is normally used with a Gerund to mean that you continue doing an action: *She kept talking.*

KEEP + INFINITIVE

"Keep" can also be used with an object followed by an Infinitive, but then the infinitive takes on the meaning of "in order to..." In the sentence above, the attackers kept hostages in order to prevent the police from entering: *The attackers kept hostages **to prevent** the police from entering.*

NEED + GERUND

When "need" is used with a Gerund, it takes on a Passive meaning. The sentence above means "the house needs to be cleaned": *The house needs **cleaning**.*

NEED + INFINITIVE

"Need" is usually used with an Infinitive or an Object + an Infinitive: *He needs **to call** his boss. He needs him **to call** his boss.*

REGRET + GERUND

"Regret" is normally used with a Gerund. This is when you are sorry about something you did in the past and you wish you had not done it: *I regret **going** to bed so late. I'm really tired today. She regrets **leaving** school when she was sixteen. She wishes that she had studied more and then gone to university. I regretted being late to the interview.*

REGRET + TO + INFINITIVE

But sometimes we use this construction when we are giving someone bad news, in quite a formal way. The Verb is almost always something like 'say' or 'tell' or 'inform': *We regret **to tell** you that the train has been delayed. The company regrets **to inform** employees that the London office will close next year. We regret **to inform** you that your position at the company is being liminated.*

REMEMBER + GERUND

When "remember" is used with a Gerund, it means "to remember that you have done something in the past." The sentence above means that I mentioned the meeting, and that I remember the fact that I did that: *I remember **mentioning** the meeting yesterday. I remember **going** to Holland when I was a child. (= I have a memory of going to Holland) He remembers **closing** the door. (= He has a memory of closing the door).*

REMEMBER + TO + INFINITIVE

When "remember" is used with an Infinitive, it means "to remember that you need to do something." (And usually, you then do the thing). The next

sentence means that he remembered that he needed to turn the lights off: He remembered *to turn off* the lights before he left. I remembered *to buy* juice. (= I was walking home and the idea that I needed juice came into my head, so I bought some). She remembered *to send* a card to her grandmother. (She remembers that she needs to send a card to her grandmother..

START + GERUND

When "start" is used in non-Continuous tenses, you can either use a Gerund or an Infinitive: Lydia *started talking* really fast. Lydia *started to talk* really fast.

When "start" is used in Continuous tenses, an Infinitive is used: Lydia *is starting to talk* really fast.

START + INFINITIVE

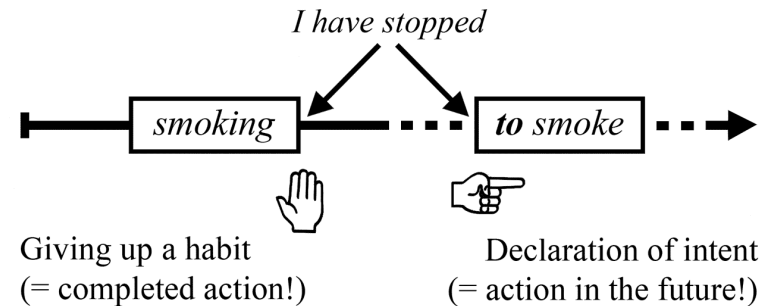
When "start" is used with an Infinitive, the Infinitive takes on the meaning of "in order to." I started (in order) *to learn* French, but it was so much work that I finally quit the class. In other situations, an Infinitive means that you did not complete or continue an action.

STOP + GERUND

ATTENTION: "Stop" is normally used with a Gerund and it means the Verb in the Gerund (-ing) is the thing that we stop: Jim stopped *smoking* for health reasons. I stopped *working* when I was expecting a baby. (Working is the thing I stopped). My grandmother stopped *driving* when she was 85. (Driving is the thing she stopped). My boss came into the room, so I stopped *browsing* the internet. There was a fire alarm, so I stopped *eating* and went outside. **BUT:**

STOP + TO + INFINITIVE

When "stop" is used with an Infinitive, the Infinitive takes on the meaning of "in order to." and this means that the Verb in the Infinitive is NOT the thing we stop, but something else: Jim *stopped to smoke*. (= He has stopped something else because he wants to smoke a cigarette), in contrast to: Jim *stopped smoking* (= He gave up smoking cigarettes OR He has thrown away his cigarette at that moment). Compare in the diagram:



More examples: I (have) *stopped* (my work *in order*) *to rest* for a few minutes. I *stopped* (my work *in order*) *to eat* lunch. Sue was shopping and she *stopped* (it *in order*) *to get* a cup of coffee. (Sue stopped shopping because she wanted to get a cup of coffee).

Although we have used the Simple tense forms above, most people actually use the Perfect forms "have stopped" because the Simple tenses indicate a habit rather than an action. With the Simple tenses, "stop" itself becomes a longer lasting habit rather than just a short interruption of some other actions. "I stopped / stop / will stop / would stop smoking cigarettes" is pretty static, therefore the same sentence is much more dynamic in its Perfect forms and shows in greater accuracy and variety what we really mean. Remember: Just like in "It is ten

minutes **to** six", the direction word "**to**" indicates a forward movement towards the future while "-ing" only stands for an action. This fact is important when we use the word "stop". Look again:

I had stopped smoking cigarettes before (I began smoking again).

I have stopped smoking cigarettes recently (and I feel relieved).

I will have stopped smoking cigarettes by the end of the week (, I think).

I would have stopped smoking cigarettes if I could. (But I could not!).

I had stopped (my work **in order**) **to smoke** a cigarette (when the boss came in).

I have stopped (my work **in order**) **to smoke** a cigarette (and I am smoking now).

I will have stopped (my work **in order**) **to smoke** a cigarette (by lunchtime).

I would have stopped (my work **in order**) **to smoke** a cigarette (but I had no time).

TRY + GERUND

"Try + Gerund" means that you do something as an experiment with different methods in order to see if something works. The thing you do is not difficult, but you want to see if doing it will have the result that you want:

*She cannot find a job. She **tried looking** in the paper, but there was nothing.*

*She **tried** asking friends and family, but nobody knew of anything. She also tried going shop to shop, but nobody was hiring.*

*I wanted to stop smoking, so I **tried using** nicotine patches. (= Using nicotine patches was easy, but I wanted to know if it would help me stop smoking).*

*She **tried giving up** chocolate, but it did not help her lose weight. (It was easy for her to give up chocolate. She gave it up to see if it would help her lose weight, but it did not).*

"Try + Gerund" is often used when you experiment with something, but you do not really like it or want to do it again.

*She **tried eating** the snake soup, but she did not like it.*

TRY + TO + INFINITIVE

This is when the thing you do itself is difficult and you do not succeed in doing it.

*I **tried to lift** the suitcase, but it was too heavy.*

*She **tried to catch** the bus, but she couldn't run fast enough.*

When you "try to do" something, you want to do it, but you do not succeed in actually doing it. In the sentence above, an infinitive is used because she cannot successfully climb the tree.

*She **tried to climb** the tree, but she could not even get off the ground.*

An Infinitive is also used if you are asking someone to try something they may or may not be able to accomplish.

*Try not **to wake** the baby when you get up tomorrow morning at 5.*

Look at the difference:

*I **tried** giving up chocolate (it was no problem to stop eating chocolate) but it didn't make me feel more healthy.*

*I **tried to give up** chocolate, but it was too hard. I always ate some when my friends offered it to me.*

*It was too hot in the room. I **tried** opening the window (it was easy to open the window). It did not help though, because it was very hot outside too.*

*I **tried to open** the window, but I could not because it was stuck.*

10. SOME VERBS CAN BE FOLLOWED BY A GERUND OR AN INFINITIVE WITH LITTLE DIFFERENCE IN MEANING.

Examples:

She likes *swimming*.

She likes *to swim*.

Although the difference in meaning is small with these particular Verbs, and Gerunds and Infinitives can often be used interchangeably, there is still a meaning difference. Using a **Gerund** suggests that you are **referring to real activities** or experiences. Using an **Infinitive** suggests that you are talking about **potential or possible activities** or **experiences**. Because of this small difference in meaning, Gerunds and Infinitives cannot always be used interchangeably, such as in the examples below.

Examples:

The British reporter likes living in Melbourne. He lives in Melbourne and he likes what he experiences there.

The British reporter *likes to live* in Melbourne whenever he works in Australia. He likes the option or possibility of living in Melbourne when he works in the Australia.

I like speaking Italian because it's such a beautiful language. I like the experience of speaking Italian, and the way it makes me feel when I speak the language.

I *like to speak* Italian when I am in Italy. I prefer the option of speaking Italian when I am in Italy.

10.) Examples Of Verbs Followed By Gerunds Or Infinitives (Similar Meaning)

cannot bear	She cannot <i>bear being</i> alone.	She cannot <i>bear to be</i> alone.
cannot stand	Hilda cannot <i>stand working</i> the late shift.	Hilda cannot <i>stand to work</i> the late shift.
cease	The government <i>ceased providing</i> free health care.	The government <i>ceased to provide</i> free health care.
continue	She <i>continued talking</i> .	She <i>continued to talk</i> .
hate	He <i>hates cleaning</i> dishes.	He <i>hates to clean</i> dishes.
like	Samantha <i>likes reading</i> .	Samantha <i>likes to read</i> .
love	We <i>love scuba diving</i> .	We <i>love to scuba dive</i> .
neglect	He <i>neglected doing</i> his daily chores.	He <i>neglected to do</i> his daily chores.
prefer	He <i>prefers eating</i> at 9 in the morning.	He <i>prefers to eat</i> at 9 in the morning.
propose	My sister <i>proposed paying</i> for the trip.	My sister <i>proposed to pay</i> for the trip.

11. THERE ARE MANY "BE + ADJECTIVE" COMBINATIONS THAT ARE COMMONLY FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES.

Examples:

They were anxious to begin.

She was delighted to receive such good feedback.

He is lucky to have such good friends.

11.) Examples Of Be + Adjective Combinations Followed By Infinitives

(Notice that the negative "not" stands always before "to"!)

be amazed	He <i>was amazed</i> to discover the truth.
be anxious	She <i>was anxious</i> to start her new job.
be ashamed	He <i>was ashamed</i> to admit he had lied.
be bound	She <i>is bound</i> to be elected class president.
be careful	They <i>were careful</i> not to reveal the winner of the prize until the end.
be certain	She <i>is certain</i> to get the job.
be content	The student <i>was content</i> to receive second place in the competition.
be delighted	We <i>were delighted</i> to be invited to the wedding.
be determined	He <i>was determined</i> to finish the marathon.
be eager	He <i>was eager</i> to begin.
be eligible	They <i>were not eligible</i> to participate in the program.
be fortunate	She <i>was fortunate</i> to receive the research grant.
be glad	I <i>would be glad</i> to help out.
be happy	She <i>was happy</i> to see them at the party.
be hesitant	Carl <i>was hesitant</i> to say anything.

be liable	The mountain climber <i>is liable</i> to hurt himself if he does not use well-made equipment.
be likely	They <i>are likely</i> to show up at any time.
be lucky	You <i>were lucky</i> to have such an opportunity.
be pleased	I <i>am pleased</i> to meet you.
be proud	He <i>was proud</i> to have been chosen to lead the project.
be ready	I <i>am ready</i> to go now.
be reluctant	The witness <i>was reluctant</i> to reveal what he had seen.
be sad	She <i>was really</i> sad to leave.
be shocked	He <i>was shocked</i> to discover the truth.
be sorry	I <i>am sorry</i> to have to tell you that the tickets are sold out.
be surprised	She <i>was surprised</i> to discover that he had never learned how to swim.

12. THERE ARE ALSO MANY NOUNS THAT ARE COMMONLY FOLLOWED BY INFINITIVES.

Examples:

It was a good *decision* to move to Jersey.

His *wish* to become an actor was well known.

Stanley's *desire* to improve impressed me.

12.) Examples Of Nouns Followed By Infinitives

advice	His <i>advice</i> to continue was good.
appeal	The <i>appeal</i> to reduce pollution was ineffective.
attempt	Her <i>attempt</i> to locate them was unsuccessful.
chance	In Britain, you will have a <i>chance</i> to improve your English.
decision	The <i>decision</i> to increase taxes was not popular.
desire	His <i>desire</i> to get a good job motivated him.
dream	Her <i>dream</i> to become an actress was never realized.
goal	His <i>goal</i> to run a marathon seemed unrealistic.
motivation	Her <i>motivation</i> to enter university impressed them.
need	Jack's <i>need</i> to be the centre of attention was irritating.
opportunity	The <i>opportunity</i> to live in Madrid interested Stephen.
order	They followed the general's <i>order</i> to retreat.
permission	<i>Permission</i> to enter the area was difficult to get.
plan	Stephen's <i>plan</i> to move to Madrid bothered his family.
preparation	NASA's <i>preparations</i> to launch a new spaceship on Monday moved forward.
proposal	Her <i>proposal</i> to host the party impressed the committee.
recommendation	His <i>recommendation</i> to close the school upset the community.

refusal	Diana's <i>refusal</i> to help did not go unnoticed.
reminder	Her <i>reminder</i> to review the vocabulary helped me pass the test.
request	Their <i>request</i> to participate was granted.
requirement	Their <i>requirement</i> to speak five languages fluently was unreasonable.
suggestion	Her <i>suggestion</i> to leave seemed like a good idea.
tendency	His <i>tendency</i> to tap his desk during a test annoyed me.
wish	Her <i>wish</i> to be treated normally was respected.
way	One <i>way</i> to improve your English is to watch soap operas that have English subtitles.

13. SOMETIMES INFINITIVES ARE USED TO EXPRESS THE IDEA OF "IN ORDER TO DO SOMETHING."

This idea of "in order to do something" is found in many English patterns.

Examples:

He bought the English dictionary *to* look up difficult words. in order to look up

Frances sold her car *to* get the money that she needed. in order to get

Francis uses wikipedia.org *to* learn English. in order to learn

too + Adjective / Adverb + Infinitive

Examples:

The box is *too heavy* to carry.

The television is *too expensive* to buy.

Fiona ran *too slowly* to win the race.

We arrived *too late* to see the beginning of the movie.

Adjective / Adverb + enough + Infinitive

Examples:

She is *tall enough* to reach the book on the shelf.

Ronald was *smart enough* to enter college at the age of 12.

Thomas runs *quickly enough* to win the race.

enough + Noun(s) + Infinitive

Examples:

Michael needs *enough time* to finish writing his book.

He has *enough money* to buy his own car.

Violet owns *enough books* to start her own library.

14. CERTAIN EXPRESSIONS ARE FOLLOWED BY "ING" FORMS.

Expressions followed by Verb+ing Forms

Examples:

He had fun cycl*ing*.

They had difficulty find*ing* the car park.

Jonathan spent his time practis*ing* the piano.

14.) Examples Of Expressions Followed By Verb + ing

have (some) problems	He had some problems read <i>ing</i> without his glasses.
have a difficult time	She had a difficult time climb <i>ing</i> up the mountain.
have a good time	They had a good time snorkel <i>ing</i> .
have a hard time	She had a hard time explain <i>ing</i> the situation.
have a problem	Bertie had a problem understand <i>ing</i> Virginia's accent.
have an easy time	She had an easy time sell <i>ing</i> the delicious cookies.
have difficulty	Emma had difficulty translat <i>ing</i> the letter by herself.
have fun	The had fun ski <i>ing</i> .
have no difficulty	They had no difficulty find <i>ing</i> a discount flight to London.
have no problem	Alexander had no problem gett <i>ing</i> from the airport to the hotel.
spend one's time	He always spends his time work <i>ing</i> out at the leisure centre.
waste one's time	She always wastes her time play <i>ing</i> video games.

15. VERBS WHICH INDICATE LOCATION CAN OFTEN BE FOLLOWED BY "ING" FORMS.

This pattern is VERB OF LOCATION + LOCATION + VERB + ING.

Examples:

- Ruby *stood* at the *corner waiting* for Duncan.
- Josephine *lay* in *bed thinking* about her future.
- Nigel *clung* to the *side of the cliff looking* down.

15.) Examples Of Location Verbs Followed By Verb+Ing

cling	Hee <i>clung</i> to the bottom of the bridge <i>trying</i> to resist the swift current.
cower	The family <i>cowered in</i> their basement <i>hoping</i> the tornado would change directions.
crouch	The mountain lion <i>crouched on</i> a bolder <i>watching</i> the deer walk by below.
hang	The monkey <i>hung in</i> the tree <i>chewing</i> on the ripened fruit.
lean	Tom <i>leaned against</i> the wall <i>resting</i> a few moments before he continued on.
lie	He <i>lay in</i> bed <i>thinking</i> about the day's events.
sit	He always <i>sits on</i> the couch <i>watching</i> television.
stand	Iris <i>stood at</i> the corner <i>looking</i> up and down the street.

16. HOW GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES CAN REFER TO CERTAIN TENSES:

In addition to Simple Gerund and Infinitive forms, there are Continuous Gerund and Infinitive forms, Passive Gerund and Infinitive forms and Perfect Gerund and Infinitive forms as well as combinations of these forms. Continuous forms are used to emphasise that an action is taking place now. Passive forms are used to emphasise that the Subject of the sentence is being acted upon. Perfect Gerund and Infinitive forms are used to emphasise completion in both the Past and the Future.

TIME ASPECT	GERUND	INFINITIVE
Simple Present Active Voice	<i>The teacher enjoys teaching.</i>	<i>The teacher wants to teach.</i>
Continuous Active Voice	<i>Mr Baker is really enjoying teaching his class. (Looks the same as simple form above.)</i>	<i>Mr Baker would like to be teaching his class.</i>
Perfect Active Voice	<i>The retired teacher recalled having taught.</i>	<i>The teacher was expecting to have taught that already.</i>
Simple Present Passive Voice	<i>The students enjoy being taught.</i>	<i>The students want to be taught.</i>
Continuous Passive Voice	<i>The students are enjoying being taught by such an exciting new teacher. (Looks the same as the passive form above.)</i>	<i>The students would like to be being taught by Mr Smith.</i>
Perfect Passive Voice	<i>The older students recalled having been taught that already.</i>	<i>The students were expecting to have been taught that by now.</i>

UNDERSTANDING TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Another feature of the English grammar which is hard to understand is the difference between a Transitive Verb and an Intransitive Verb. In short: A **Transitive Verb** is a Verb that **requires one** or more **Objects**. In contrast to a Transitive Verb, an **Intransitive Verb** does **not take** any **Object**. And therefore: an Intransitive Verb **cannot build** a tense in the **Passive Voice**! In other words: The **action is not done to someone or something**. It **only** involves the **Subject**!

Knowing if a Verb is used in a Transitive or in an Intransitive way helps learners to use words correctly and improves grammar accuracy. And to understand what Transitive and Intransitive Verbs are, it's first necessary to understand what the Object of a Verb is. Take a look at these two simple sentences:

- *My mother likes tea.*
- *My mother laughed.*

'My mother' is the **Subject** in both sentences. In the first sentence 'like' is the Verb and 'tea' is its **Object**. 'Like' is therefore a **Transitive Verb**, because it has an Object. The Object can be either a Noun, a Pronoun, or an entire clause.

In the second sentence, the Verb is 'laugh'. It has no Object and is therefore an **Intransitive Verb**. So, we have the following definitions:

- a **Transitive Verb** has an **Object**
- an **Intransitive Verb** has **NO Object**.

More Examples:

- He **laughed**. (*Laughed* is an Intransitive Verb. It has no Direct Object. We cannot laugh something.)
- He **told** a joke. (*Told* is a Transitive Verb. The Direct Object is *a joke*. We can tell something, a story, a lie, a joke, etc.)

It is important to know whether a Verb is **transitive** or **intransitive** as it is this quality that decides what Verb tenses we can use. Therefore, in a good dictionary, we can see these remarks after any Verb entry: (**tr** or **vt** or just **t**) for "transitive", (**intr** or **vi** or just **i**) for "intransitive", or (mainly **intr** or **vi** or just **i**) for "mainly intransitive".

There is a **useful rule** that helps to find out by yourself, what quality a Verb has: Just find the **Direct Object** of a Verb **by asking "what?"** or **"whom?"**. If this question has no appropriate answer, then we are probably dealing with an Intransitive Verb. Look:

- He **caught** the bus after the party. (Question: *Caught what?* Answer: **the bus** ("the bus" is the Direct Object. So the Verb is transitive.)
- He **disappeared** after the party. (Question: *Disappeared what?* That **does not make sense** as we cannot disappear something. So, this is an Intransitive Verb. It cannot take a Direct Object!)

Now let's go into more detail about Transitive and Intransitive Verbs by looking at what can follow them in a sentence.

Transitive Verbs (and what follows them)

When a Verb is **Transitive** it always has an Object. It is **incorrect** to use a Transitive Verb **without an Object**.

The Object of a Transitive Verb can be:

1. a Noun: *Tom sold **his house**. They drank **the beer**.*
2. a Pronoun: *He sold **it**. He kissed **her**.*
3. a clause: *He asked **his friend to help him**.
She knows **where I live**.*

Transitive Verbs with two Objects

Some Transitive Verbs, such as 'lend', 'give' and 'buy' can have two Objects. In the sentence *I brought her some wine* both 'her' and 'wine' are Objects. Here are three more examples:

- *He gave his wife a birthday present.* ('his wife' and 'a birthday present' are the Objects)
- *They cooked their friends a meal.* ('their friends' and 'a meal' are the Objects)
- *Mary poured him a glass of wine.* ('him' and 'a glass of wine' are the Objects)

Examples of Intransitive Verbs

Here are some more examples of intransitive verbs:

- Every single person **voted**.
- The jackdaws **roost** in these trees.
- The crowd **demonstrated** outside the theatre. (*demonstrated* is an Intransitive Verb here. However, *to demonstrate* can be used transitively too: *He demonstrated an experiment to the class.*)

Intransitive Verbs (and what sometimes follows them)

When a Verb is **Intransitive** it never has an Object:

- *The man appeared.* (Intransitive Verb = 'appear')
- *I sneezed.* (Intransitive Verb = 'sneeze')
- *My uncle has just died.* (Intransitive Verb = 'die')
- *The bomb exploded.* (Intransitive Verb = 'explode')
- *The match ended.* (Intransitive Verb = 'end')

However, some Intransitive Verbs **can** be followed by a prepositional phrase or an Adverb:

- *I fell **off my bike**.* (prepositional phrase = 'off my bike')
- *The ball rolled **away**.* (Adverb = 'away')

A few Intransitive Verbs **must** be followed by something (either a prepositional phrase or an Adverb). These are often Verbs for describing movement:

- *The plane spiralled **out of control**.* NOT only .
- *The rocket hurtled **towards the planet**.* NOT only .
(Although Intransitive, the Verbs 'spiral' and 'hurtle' need to be followed by something. They cannot be used alone.)

Tip: We can recognise an Intransitive Verb because it never has a Passive form. For example, you'll see that 'bite', which is Transitive, can be used Passively. The Intransitive Verb 'fall', however, cannot:

- *The dog bit me.* (active)
- *I was bitten by the dog.* (Passive)
- *I fell off my bike.* (active)
- *I was fallen off my bike.* (A Passive form does not make sense!)

There are some Transitive Verbs which cannot be made Passive—the Verb 'afford', for example—but there are very few of these.

Some Verbs can be Transitive and Intransitive. Example:

- Dennis **walks** for miles. (As **walks** is not being done to anything, this Verb is intransitive.)

However, compare it to this:

- Dennis **walks** the dog for miles (This time, *walks* does have a Direct Object (*the dog*). Therefore, it is transitive. Some Verbs can be both intransitive and transitive, depending on the precise meaning.)

Here is another example:

- The apes **played** in the woods. (intransitive)
- The apes **played** hide and seek in the woods. (transitive)
(Question: played what? Answer: hide and seek.)

Both Transitive AND Intransitive

Some Verbs have several meanings and can be Transitive or Intransitive, depending on the sense in which way they are used. Examples:

- grow (Transitive, 'to produce food') *He grows his own fruit and vegetables.*
- grow (Intransitive, 'to increase in size') *My son is growing.*
- ring (Transitive, 'to call someone') *I rang her yesterday.*
- ring (Intransitive, 'to sound, make a noise') *The doorbell rang.*

List of Common Intransitive Verbs:

Verb	Comment
to agree	can also be transitive (e.g., to agree a point)
to play	can also be transitive (e.g., to play a tune)
to run	can also be transitive (e.g., to run a mile)

to walk	can also be transitive (e.g., to walk the dog)
to eat	can also be transitive (e.g., to eat a cake)
to appear	-
to arrive	-
to belong	-
to collapse	-
to collide	-
to die	-
to demonstrate	can also be transitive (e.g., to demonstrate a skill)
to disappear	-
to emerge	-
to exist	-
to fall	-
to go	-
to happen	-
to laugh	-
to nest	-
to occur	-
to remain	-
to respond	-
to rise	-
to roost	-
to sit	can also be transitive (e.g., to sit a child)
to sleep	-
to stand	can also be transitive (e.g., to stand a lamp)
to vanish	-

Which Verb is used with or without Object? Let us compare:

- Does your dog **bite**? (no Object)
- The cat **bit** *him*. (one Object)
- Can you **bite** *me* off a piece of *banana*? (two Objects)
- The vase **broke**. (no Object; anticausative construction)
- She **broke** the *toothpick*. (one Object)
- Can you **break** *me* some *toothpicks* for my model castle? (two Objects)
- Stop me before I **buy** again. (no Object; antipassive construction)
- The man **bought** a *ring*. (one Object)
- The man **bought** his *wife* a *ring*. (two objects)

List of Common Transitive Verbs:

Verb	Example
to bring	Please bring me a glass of water.
to buy	Do not buy hamburgers at that restaurant.
to cost	My coat cost a lot of money.
to get	My children get good grades in school.
to give	Our family gives gifts at Christmas.
to leave	I leave home at 8:00 in the morning.
to lend	Could you please lend me five dollars?
to make	Did you make coffee this morning?
to offer	My boss offered me a great new job.
to owe	I owe you ten dollars.
to pass	All the students passed the test.
to pay	Don't forget to pay the phone bill.

to play	Jennifer loves playing the piano.
to promise	She promised me she would come to the party.
to read	They read the newspaper every day.
to refuse	The customs officers refused to let me enter the country.
to send	My girlfriend sends me an e-mail message every day.
to show	My neighbour showed me her garden yesterday.
to sing	Muriel sings songs at karaoke every Sunday night.
to take	Travellers take planes or trains to their destinations.
to teach	Our parents teach us to be kind.
to tell	The author tells a good story.
to write	Tommy writes short stories about the South.

The following sentences contain **Transitive Verbs** (with one or more Objects):

- We are going to **need** *a bigger boat*.
- You need to **fill in** *this form*.
- The plane **took off** half *an hour* later.
- Hang on, I **shall be** with *you* in *a minute*.
- We **watched** *a movie* last night.
- She is **eating** *popcorn*.
- When I said that, my sister **smacked** *me*.
- Santa **gave** *me a present*.

In the following sentences, Verbs are used without Direct Object. We consider them Intransitive Verbs or Verbs used intransitively:

- "I **sneezed**."
- "My dog **ran**."

- "When he finished the race, he **vomited**."
- "Water **evaporates** when it is hot."
- "You have **grown** since I last saw you!"

Some Verbs accept Objects but do not always require one. Such a Verb may be used as Intransitive in one sentence, and as Transitive in another:

Intransitive	Transitive
It is raining .	It is raining <i>cats and dogs</i> .
When he finished the race, he barfed .	When he finished the race, he barfed up <i>his lunch</i> .
Water evaporates when it is hot.	Heat evaporates <i>water</i> .
He is been singing all day.	He is been singing <i>barbershop</i> all day.
You have grown since I last saw you.	You have grown <i>a beard</i> since I last saw you!

In general, **Intransitive Verbs** often involve **weather terms, involuntary processes, states, bodily functions, motion, action processes, cognition, sensation, and emotion** in general.

As an **Intransitive Verb cannot take a Direct Object**, there is **no tense form in the Passive Voice!** For example:

- She **fell**. ✓ (The verb *fell* - from *to fall* - is intransitive.)
- She **was fallen**. ✗ (There is no passive version of *to fall*.)

Here is another example:

- The event **happened** at 6 o'clock. ✓ (The verb *happened* - from *to happen* - is intransitive.)
- The event **was happened** at 6 o'clock. ✗ (There is no Passive version of *to happen*.)

Compare those two examples to one with a transitive verb:

- The man **baked** a cake. ✓ (The verb *baked* - from *to bake* - is transitive.)
- A cake **was baked** by the man. ✓ (we can turn the Transitive Verb into a Passive version.)

Changing Operations

It is possible to change the Transitivity of a Verb. A Transitive Verb in the Active Voice becomes Intransitive in the Passive Voice. For example, consider the following sentence: *David **hugged** Mary.*

In this sentence, "hugged" is a Transitive Verb taking "Mary" as its Object. The sentence can be made Passive with the Direct Object "Mary" as the grammatical subject as follows: *Mary **was hugged**.* The passive-voice construction cannot take an Object. The passivised sentence could be continued with the agent "by David": *Mary **was hugged** by David.* It cannot be continued with a Direct Object to be taken by "was hugged." For example, it would be ungrammatical to write "*Mary was hugged her daughter*" in order to show that Mary and her daughter shared a hug.

In English, Intransitive Verbs can be used in the Passive Voice when a Prepositional Phrase is included, as in, "*The houses **were lived in** by millions of people.*"

CONTRACTIONS

Contractions are quite common in spoken English. Contractions can make the speech faster and often they are easier pronounced. We often “contract” or *shorten* words in English. A Contraction is the combination of two words into a shortened form with the omission of one or some internal letters and the use of an apostrophe (') instead of “I have.” As you can see, we usually insert an apostrophe (') in place of the missing letter or letters in writing. Here are some example sentences: I haven't seen him. (I have not seen him.); Who's calling? (Who is calling?); They're coming. (They are coming.)

The Contraction 's (= is or has, or even was) is not used only with Pronouns. It can also be used with Nouns, names, question words and words like “here” and “there”, for example: The train's late; John's arrived; Where's the phone?; Here's your change; There's a man.

Teachers for English as a foreign language are strongly advised to teach the proper form first, just as our parents do. The reason for such an undertaking is logical: Some Contractions can have two or three meanings. For example, *he'd* can be “*he had*”, “*he should*” or “*he would*”. It depends on the rest of the sentence. Look at these examples: *He'd like to go.* (He would like to go.); *He'd finished when I arrived.* (He had finished when I arrived.) **BE CAREFUL: Every student MUST be able to speak and write the proper and full form, just in case there is a misunderstanding during a conversation. AND: In writing, only the proper and full form is allowed!!**

There are two different sorts of Contractions: **common Contractions** and **informal Contractions**. The common Contractions can be used in spoken English for almost each daily situation. However, they should not be used in written English. On the following page, we can see a **list of common Contractions** together with their proper forms:

Informal Contractions

Informal Contractions are short forms of other words that people use when speaking casually. They are not exactly slang, but they are a little like slang. For example, “*gonna*” is a short form of “*going to*”. If you say “*going to*” very fast, without carefully pronouncing each word, it can sound like “*gonna*”. Sometimes, the careless speech of native speakers makes it pretty hard for you to understand what they say

Please remember that these are informal Contractions. That means that we do not use them in “*correct*” speech, and we almost never use them in writing. (If you see them in writing, for example in a comic strip, that is because the written words represent the spoken words or dialogue.) We normally use them only when speaking fast and casually, for example with friends.

It is probably true to say that informal Contractions are more common in American English. Some people never use them, even in informal speech, because informal Contractions are considered substandard by others. This means consequently, when you use those short forms, you might be considered as a person of no education and inferior social as well as low cultural status!

The most common Contractions of Pronouns and Auxiliaries are listed here. Some of them, such as “*that’d*” or “*what’d*”, are rarely in use.

	BE	HAVE	HAD	SHALL	SHOULD	WILL	WOULD
I	I'm I am	I've I have	I'd I had	I'll I shall	I'd I should	I'll I will	I'd I would
he	he's he is / he was	he's he has	he'd he had	he'll he shall	he'd he should	he'll he will	he'd he would
she	she's she is / she was	she's she has	she'd she had	she'll she shall	she'd she should	she'll she will	she'd she would
it	it's (or 'tis) it is / it was	it's it has	it'd it had	it'll it shall	it'd it should	it'll it will	it'd it would
we	we're we are / we were	we've we have	we'd we had	we'll we shall	we'd we should	we'll we will	we'd we would
you	you're you are / you were	you've you have	you'd you had	you'll you shall	you'd you should	you'll you will	you'd you would
they	they're they are / they were	they've they have	they'd they had	they'll they shall	they'd they should	they'll they will	they'd they would
that	that's that is / that was	that's that has	that'd that had	that'll that shall	that'd that should	that'll that will	that'd that would
who	who's who is / who was	who's who has	who'd who had	who'll who shall	who'd who should	who'll who will	who'd who would
what	what's / what're what is / what are / what were	what's what has	what'd what had	what'll what shall	what'd what should	what'll what will	what'd what would
where	where's where is / where was	where's where has	where'd where had	where'll where shall	where'd where should	where'll where will	where'd where would
when	when's when is / when was	when's when has	when'd when had	when'll when shall	when'd when should	when'll when will	when'd when would
why	why's why is / why was	why's why has	why'd why had	why'll why shall	why'd why should	why'll why will	why'd why would
how	how's how is / how was	how's how has	how'd how had	how'll how shall	how'd how should	how'll how will	how'd how would

Also note that, unlike normal Contractions, we do not usually use apostrophes (') with informal Contractions when written. Listed below are some common informal Contractions, with example sentences. Note that the example sentences may be a little artificial because when we use a Contraction we may also use other contractions in the same sentence, or even drop some words completely. For example:

Contraction	Meaning
ain't	am not/are not/is not >> I ain't sure; You ain't my boss
ain't	has not/have not >> I ain't done it; She ain't finished yet.
gimme	give me >> Gimme your money; Don't gimme that rubbish; Can you gimme a hand?
gonna	going to >> Nothing's gonna change my love for you; I'm not gonna tell you; What are you gonna do?
gotta	(have) got a >> I've gotta gun >> I gotta gun; She hasn't gotta penny; Have you gotta car?
gotta	(have) got to >> I've gotta go now >> I gotta go now; We haven't gotta do that; Have they gotta work?
kinda	= kind of >> She's kinda cute.
lemme	= let me >> Lemme go!
wanna	= want to >> I wanna go home.
wanna	= want a >> I wanna coffee.
whatcha	= what are you >> Whatcha going to do?
whatcha	= what have you >> Whatcha got there?
ya	= you >> Who saw ya?

By melting together, some informal Contraction can become shorter:

What are you going to do? >> Whatcha going to do? >> Whatcha gonna do? or

Do you want a beer? >> Do you wanna beer? >> D'you wanna beer? >> D'ya wanna beer? >> Ya wanna beer? >> Wanna beer?

Informal Contractions are considered not "correct English" by most teachers. So, do not use them in a written exam, unless you want to represent colloquial speech - but then, use quote marks!. Note that in spoken English we sometimes put even three words together. The following list of 100 Contractions might help you to understand what we really say:

Contraction	Meaning
ain't*	(* informal contraction used as a substitute for am not; are not; is not; has not; have not)
aren't*	are not (*sometimes used for "am not" in questions (e.g. "Aren't I the greatest?"); substandard!
can't	cannot
can't've	cannot have
'cause	because
could've	could have
couldn't	could not
couldn't've	could not have
daren't	dare not
didn't	did not
doesn't	does not

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don't*	do not (* sometimes used to mean “does not”; however, this is grammatically incorrect!)
hadn't	had not
hadn't've	had not have
hasn't	has not
haven't	have not
he'd	he had / he would
he'd've	he would have
he'll	he shall / he will
he'll've	he shall have / he will have
he's	he has / he is
how'd	how did
how'd'y*	how do you (*More often spelled “howdy”)
how'll	how will
how's	how has / how is / how does
I'd	I had / I would
I'd've	I would have
I'll	I shall / I will
I'll've	I shall have / I will have
I'm	I am
I've	I have
isn't	is not
it'd	it had / it would
it'd've	it would have
it'll	it shall / it will
it'll've	it shall have / it will have
it's	it has / it is

let's	let us
ma'am	madam
mayn't	may not
might've	might have
mightn't	might not
mightn't've	might not have
must've	must have
mustn't	must not
mustn't've	must not have
needn't	need not
o'clock	of the clock
o'war	of the war
oughtn't	ought not
oughtn't've	ought not have
shan't / sha'n't''*	shall not (* spelling in older works)
shan't've	shall not have
she'd	she had / she would
she'd've	she would have
she'll	she shall / she will
she'll've	she shall have / she will have
she's	she has / she is
should've	should have
shouldn't	should not
shouldn't've	should not have
so's	so as / so is
that's	that has / that is

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there'd	there had / there would
there's	there has / there is
they'd	they had / they would
they'll	they shall / they will
they'll've	they shall have / they will have
they're	they are
they've	they have
'tis	it is / it has
to've	to have
wasn't	was not
we'd	we had / we would
we'll	we will
we'll've	we will have
we're	we are
we've	we have
weren't	were not
what'll	what shall / what will
what'll've	what shall have / what will have
what're	what are
what's	what has / what is
what've	what have
when's	when has / when is
when've	when have
where'd	where did
where's	where has / where is
where've	where have
who'll	who shall / who will

who'll've	who shall have / who will have
who's	who has / who is
who've	who have
why's	why has / why is
will've	will have
won't	will not
won't've	will not have
would've	would have
wouldn't	would not
wouldn't've	would not have
y'all	you all
y'all'd've	you all would have
y'all're	you all are
y'all've	you all have
you'd	you had / you would
you'd've	you would have
you'll	you shall / you will
you'll've	you shall have / you will have
you're	you are
you've	you have

QUESTION TAGS AND TAG ANSWERS

A “question tag” (or “tag question” in American English, also known as “tail question”) is a typical English grammatical structure in which a declarative statement or an Imperative is turned into a question by adding an interrogative fragment (the “tag”). For example, in the sentence “*You’re John, **aren’t you?***”, the statement “You’re John” is turned into a question by the tag “**aren’t you?**”.

In most languages, question tags are more common in colloquial spoken usage than in formal written usage. They can be an indicator of politeness, emphasis or irony. They may suggest confidence or lack of confidence; they may be confrontational, defensive or tentative. Although they have the grammatical form of a question, they may be rhetorical (not expecting an answer). English question tags, as they have the grammatical form of a question, are extremely complex in comparison to other languages, because they vary according to at least three factors: the choice of *Auxiliary Verb*, the *negation* and the *intonation* pattern.

The English question tag is made up of a Helper Verb and a Pronoun. The Helper Verb must agree with the *tense*, *aspect* and *modality* of the Verb in the preceding sentence. If the Verb is in the Present Perfect, for example, the question tag uses **has** or **have**; if the Verb is in a Present Continuous form, the tag is formed with **am**, **are**, **is**; if the Verb is in a tense which does not normally use a Helper Verb, like the Present Simple, the Helper Verb is taken from the **do** form; and if the sentence has a Modal Verb, this is echoed in a tag like this:

Sentence with colloquial Question Tag	Alternative proper form
He’s read this book, hasn’t he?	has he not?
He read this book, didn’t he?	did he not?
He’s reading this book, isn’t he?	is he not?
He reads a lot of books, doesn’t he?	does he not?
He’ll read this book, won’t he?	will he not?
He should read this book, shouldn’t he?	should he not?
He can read this book, can’t he?	can he not?

Mind you, there is a **colloquial form** as well as a **proper form** which is in use by speakers of higher education. Look at the word order!

A special case occurs when the main Verb is **to be** in a Simple tense. Here the question tag repeats the main Verb, not an Auxiliary: *This is a book, **isn’t it?*** If the main Verb is **to have**, either solution is possible: *He has a book, **hasn’t he?*** *He has a book, **doesn’t he?***

Balanced Versus Unbalanced Tags

English question tags exist in both *positive* and *negative* forms. When there is no special emphasis, the *rule of thumb* often applies that a positive sentence has a *negative tag* and *vice versa*. This form usually seeks confirmation of the asker’s opinion or belief: *She is French, **isn’t she?*** *She’s not French, **is she?*** These are referred to as balanced question tags.

Unbalanced tag questions feature a positive statement with a positive tag, or a negative statement with a negative tag; it has been estimated

that in normal conversation, as many as about 50% of tags are unbalanced. Unbalanced question tags may be used for ironic or confrontational effects: *Do listen, will you?* *Oh, I'm lazy, am I?* Jack: *I refuse to spend Sunday at your mother's house!* Jill: *Oh, you do, do you?* *We'll see about that!*

Patterns of negation can show regional variations. In Scotland, positive to positive can be used when no special effect is desired: *This pizza's fine, is it?* (standard English: *This pizza's delicious, isn't it?*)

Note the following variations in the negation when the Helper Verb is the I-form of the copula: England (and America, Australia, etc.): *I am clever, aren't I?* (*am I not?*) Scotland / Northern Ireland: *I am clever, amn't I?* nonstandard dialects: *I am clever, ain't I?*

Intonation: English question tags can have a *rising* or a *falling* intonation pattern. As a rule, the English *rising tone* at the end if the tag is used when soliciting information or motivating an action, that is, when some sort of response is required. Since normal English *yes/no questions* have rising tones (e.g. *Are you coming?*), these tags make a grammatical statement into a real question: *You're coming, aren't you?* *Do listen, will you?* *Let's have a beer, shall we?*

The *falling tone* is used to underline a statement. The statement itself ends with a falling tone, and the tag sounds like an echo, strengthening the tone. Most English tag questions have this falling pattern: *He doesn't know what he's doing, does he?* *This is really boring, isn't it?* (*is it not?*)

Sometimes the *rising tone* goes with the positive to positive pattern to create a confrontational effect: *He was the best in the class, was he?* (rising: the speaker is challenging this thesis, or perhaps expressing surprised interest) *He was the best in the class, wasn't he?* (falling: the speaker holds this opinion) *Be careful, will you?* (rising: expresses irritation) *Take care, won't you?* (falling: expresses concern)

Sometimes the same words may have *different tones* depending on the situation or implication. *You don't remember my name, do you?* (rising: expresses surprise) *You don't remember my name, do you?* (falling: expresses amusement or resignation) *Your name's Mary, isn't it?* (rising: expresses uncertainty) *Your name's Mary, isn't it?* (falling: expresses confidence) It is interesting that in London English "**innit**" (for "isn't it") is in use as an all-purpose tag, used with falling patterns: *He doesn't know what he's doing, innit?* *He was the best in the class, innit?*

A Trick To Bypass The Complicated Question Tags

In Chinese, the question tag is always the same: “对吗 duì ma?” It means “correct?”, “right?”, “true?” In fact, the tag “right?” is common in a number of dialects across the UK, US and in India. The tag “**eh?**” is of Scottish origin, and can be heard across much of Scotland, New Zealand, Canada and the North-Eastern United States. In Scotland, this exists also in its negative form “**eh no?**” You always can use the following simple trick to provoke an answer by using “**correct?**”, “**right?**”, “**true?**” Answers could be: “correct!”, “right!”, “true!” And if we do not want to confirm, we say: “not correct!”, “not right!”, “not true!”

LIST OF THE ENGLISH IRREGULAR VERB IN 5 COLUMNS

The old-fashioned 3-column Verb lists which you find in most schoolbooks are insufficient. It is much better to have this 5-column Verb list at hand, because it shows all 5 possible forms that an English Verb can have. The Regular Verb forms are built as in “Abide - Abided^b” or as in “Alight - Alighted^b”. The *Auxiliaries* (Helper Verbs) are printed in **red** and *Modal Verbs* (Verbs that can change the meaning of a sentence) are printed in **blue**.

The *Base Form* (teachers often call it “Infinitive”) of any Verb can be used as a normal Simple Present tense form, with the only exception of “to be”: We have to use “**am**, **art***, **is**, or **are**”. Please note that the 3rd Person Singular usually has a special form that ends with an -s. Some of the Irregular Verbs can have 2 or 3 different Past forms: an old form and a newer regular form. Sometimes those forms might have a different meaning.

Base Form or Present tense	Present tense 3rd Person Singular	Past tense	Present Participle / Gerund	Past Participle
abide	abides	abode / abided	abiding	abode / abi- ded / abidden
alight	alights	alit / alighted	alighting	alit / alighted
arise	arises	arose	arising	arisen
awake	awakes	awoke	awaking	awoken
be / am / are	is	was / were	being	been
bear	bears	bore	bearing	born / borne

beat	beats	beat	beating	beaten
become	becomes	became	becoming	become
begin	begins	began	beginning	begun
behold	beholds	beheld	beholding	beheld
bend	bends	bent	bending	bent
bet	bets	bet	betting	bet
bid	bids	bade	bidding	bidden
bid	bids	bid	bidding	bid
bind	binds	bound	binding	bound
bite	bites	bit	biting	bitten
bleed	bleeds	bled	bleeding	bled
blow	blows	blew	blowing	blown
break	breaks	broke	breaking	broken
breed	breeds	bred	breeding	bred
bring	brings	brought	bringing	brought
broadcast	broadcasts	broadcast / broadcasted	broadcasting	broadcast / broadcasted
build	builds	built	building	built
burn	burns	burnt/burned	burning	burnt/burned
burst	bursts	burst	bursting	burst
bust	busts	bust	busting	bust
buy	buys	bought	buying	bought
can	can	could	-	-
cast	casts	cast	casting	cast
catch	catches	caught	catching	caught
choose	chooses	chose	choosing	chosen
clap	claps	clapped/clapt	clapping	clapped/clapt

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cling	clings	clung	clinging	clung
clothe	clothes	clad/clothed	clothing	clad/clothed
come	comes	came	coming	come
cost	costs	cost	costing	cost
creep	creeps	crept	creeping	crept
cut	cuts	cut	cutting	cut
dare	dares	dared/durst	daring	dared
deal	deals	dealt	dealing	dealt
dig	digs	dug	digging	dug
dive	dives	dived/dove	diving	dived
do	does	did	doing	done
draw	draws	drew	drawing	drawn
dream	dreams	dreamt / dreamed	dreaming	dreamt / dreamed
drink	drinks	drank	drinking	drunk
drive	drives	drove	driving	driven
dwell	dwells	dwelt	dwelling	dwelt
eat	eats	ate	eating	eaten
fall	falls	fell	falling	fallen
feed	feeds	fed	feeding	fed
feel	feels	felt	feeling	felt
fight	fight	fought	fighting	fought
find	finds	found	finding	found
fit	fits	fit/fitted	fitting	fit/fitted
flee	flees	fled	fleeing	fled
fling	flings	flung	flinging	flung
fly	flies	flew	flying	flown

forbid	forbids	forbade / forbade	forbidding	forbidden
forecast	forecasts	forecast / forecasted	forecasting	forecast / forecasted
foresee	foresees	foresaw	foreseeing	foreseen
foretell	foretells	foretold	foretelling	foretold
forget	forgets	forgot	forgetting	forgotten
forgive	forgives	forgave	forgiving	forgiven
forsake	forsakes	forsook	forsaking	forsaken
freeze	freezes	froze	freezing	frozen
frostbite	frostbites	frostbit	frostbiting	frostbitten
get	gets	got	getting	got/gotten
give	gives	gave	giving	given
go	goes	went	going	gone/been
grind	grinds	ground	grinding	ground
grow	grows	grew	growing	grown
handwrite	handwrites	handwrote	handwriting	handwritten
hang	hangs	hung/hanged	hanging	hung/hanged
have	has	had	having	had
hear	hears	heard	hearing	heard
hide	hides	hid	hiding	hidden
hit	hits	hit	hitting	hit
hold	holds	held	holding	held
hurt	hurts	hurt	hurting	hurt
inlay	inlays	inlaid	inlaying	inlaid
input	inputs	input/inputted	inputting	input/inputted
interlay	interlays	interlaid	interlaying	interlaid

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keep	keeps	kept	keeping	kept
kneel	kneels	knelt/kneeled	kneeling	knelt/kneeled
knit	knits	knit/knitted	knitting	knit/knitted
know	knows	knew	knowing	known
lay	lays	laid	laying	laid
lead	leads	led	leading	led
lean	leans	leant/leaned	leaning	leant/leaned
leap	leaps	leapt/leaped	leaping	leapt/leaped
learn	learns	learnt/learned	learning	learnt/learned
leave	leaves	left	leaving	left
lend	lends	lent	lending	lent
let	lets	let	letting	let
lie	lies	lay	lying	lain
light	lights	lit	lighting	lit
lose	loses	lost	losing	lost
make	makes	made	making	made
may	may	might	-	-
mean	means	meant	meaning	meant
meet	meets	met	meeting	met
melt	melts	melted	melting	molten/melted
mislead	misleads	misled	misleading	misled
mistake	mistakes	mistook	mistaking	mistaken
misunder-stand	misunder-stands	misunderstood	misunderstanding	misunderstood
miswed	misweds	miswed / miswedded	miswedding	miswed / miswedded
mow	mows	mowed	mowing	mown

must	must	-	-	-
-	-	ought to	-	-
overdraw	overdraws	overdrew	overdrawing	overdrawn
overhear	overhears	overheard	overhearing	overheard
overtake	overtakes	overtook	overtaking	overtaken
pay	pays	paid	paying	paid
preset	presets	preset	presetting	preset
prove	proves	proved	proving	proven / proved
put	puts	put	putting	put
quit	quits	quit	quitting	quit
re-prove	re-proves	re-proved	re-proving	re-proven / re-proved
read	reads	read	reading	read
rid	rids	rid/ridded	ridding	rid/ridded
ride	rides	rode	riding	ridden
ring	rings	rang	ringing	rung
rise	rises	rose	rising	risen
rive	rives	rived	riving	riven/rived
run	runs	ran	running	run
saw	saws	sawed	sawing	sawn/sawed
say	says	said	saying	said
see	sees	saw	seeing	seen
seek	seeks	sought	seeking	sought
sell	sells	sold	selling	sold
send	sends	sent	sending	sent
set	sets	set	setting	set

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sew	sews	sewed	sewing	sewn/sewed
shake	shakes	shook	shaking	shaken
shall	shall	should	-	-
shave	shaves	shaved	shaving	shaven / shaved
shear	shears	shore / sheared	shearing	shorn / sheared
shed	sheds	shed	shedding	shed
shine	shines	shone	shining	shone
shoe	shoes	shod	shoeing	shod
shoot	shoots	shot	shooting	shot
show	shows	showed	showing	shown
shrink	shrinks	shrank	shrinking	shrunk
shut	shuts	shut	shutting	shut
sing	sings	sang	singing	sung
sink	sinks	sank	sinking	sunk
sit	sits	sat	sitting	sat
slay	slays	slew	slaying	slain
sleep	sleeps	slept	sleeping	slept
slide	slides	slid	sliding	slid/slidden
sling	slings	slung	slinging	slung
slink	slinks	slunk	slinking	slunk
slit	slits	slit	slitting	slit
smell	smells	smelt/smelled	smelling	smelt/smelled
sneak	sneaks	sneaked / snuck	sneaking	sneaked / snuck
soothsay	soothsays	soothsaid	soothsaying	soothsaid

sow	sows	sowed	sowing	sown
speak	speaks	spoke	speaking	spoken
speed	speeds	sped/speeded	speeding	sped/speeded
spell	spells	spelt/spelled	spelling	spelt/spelled
spend	spends	spent	spending	spent
spill	spills	spilt/spilled	spilling	spilt/spilled
spin	spins	span/spun	spinning	spun
spit	spits	spat/spit	spitting	spat/spit
split	splits	split	splitting	split
spoil	spoils	spoilt/spoiled	spoiling	spoilt/spoiled
spread	spreads	spread	spreading	spread
spring	springs	sprang	springing	sprung
stand	stands	stood	standing	stood
steal	steals	stole	stealing	stolen
stick	sticks	stuck	sticking	stuck
sting	stings	stung	stinging	stung
stink	stinks	stank	stinking	stunk
stride	strides	strode/strided	striding	stridden
strike	strikes	struck	striking	struck / stricken
string	strings	strung	stringing	strung
strip	strips	stript/stripped	stripping	stript/stripped
strive	strives	strove	striving	striven
sublet	sublets	sublet	subletting	sublet
sunburn	sunburns	sunburned / sunburnt	sunburning	sunburned / sunburnt
swear	swears	swore	swearing	sworn

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sweat	sweats	sweat / sweated	sweating	sweat / sweated
sweep	sweeps	swept / swept	sweeping	swept / swept
swell	swells	swelled	swelling	swollen
swim	swims	swam	swimming	swum
swing	swings	swung	swinging	swung
take	takes	took	taking	taken
teach	teaches	taught	teaching	taught
tear	tears	tore	tearing	torn
tell	tells	told	telling	told
think	thinks	thought	thinking	thought
thrive	thrives	throve/thrived	thriving	thriven/thrived
throw	throws	threw	throwing	thrown
thrust	thrusters	thrust	thrusting	thrust
tread	treads	trod	treading	trodden
undergo	undergoes	underwent	undergoing	undergone
understand	understands	understood	understanding	understood
undertake	undertakes	undertook	undertaking	undertaken
upset	upsets	upset	upsetting	upset
vex	vexes	vext/vexed	vexing	vext/vexed
wake	wakes	woke	waking	woken
wear	wears	wore	wearing	worn
weave	weaves	wove	weaving	woven
wed	weds	wed/wedded	wedding	wed/wedded
weep	weeps	wept	weeping	wept
wend	wends	wended/went	wending	wended/went

wet	wets	wet/wetted	wetting	wet/wetted
will	will	would	willing	would / willed
win	wins	won	winning	won
wind	winds	wound	winding	wound
withdraw	withdraws	withdrew	withdrawing	withdrawn
withhold	withholds	withheld	withholding	withheld
withstand	withstands	withstood	withstanding	withstood
wring	wrings	wrung	wringing	wrung
write	writes	wrote	writing	written
zinc	zincs / zincks	zined / zincked	zincking	zined / zincked

Mind: "You" is now the standard English 2nd-person Pronoun and encompasses both, the Singular and Plural, tenses. In some dialects, however, "**thou**" has persisted, and in others *thou* is retained for poetic and / or literary use. Old Verb forms of the **2nd Person Singular in the Simple Present** and **Past** connected to "**thou**" end on "(e)**st**". The old forms of all Verbs of the **3rd Person Singular** also look differently; they end on "(e)**th**", not on "**s**" like today: "he hath". know: knowest, knewest, knoweth, kneweth; drive: drivest, drovest, driveth droveth; make: makest, madest, maketh, madeth etc. A few verbs have irregular *thou* forms: be: art / beest; Past: wert / wast; can: canst, he caneth, do: thou dost; (or thou doest in non-auxiliary use), he doth, did: didst; have: hast, he hath, had: hadst; may: mayest, he mayeth; shall: shalt; will: wilt.

Advice: All 5 forms of the **30 fundamental Verbs of Basic English**, which cover the essential acts or operations, have to be learned by any English-learner! The 30 Basic Verbs are: **be, have, do; will, shall, can, may, must; get, put, come, go, give, take, keep, bring, hold, let, pull, push, make, seem, say, see, look, set, send, run, stay, turn.**

THE ART OF ASKING QUESTIONS

In most school textbooks and grammar books, the art of asking questions plays hardly any significant role at all. This is the main reason why even advanced students often fail to understand an asked question or request. Questions are the foundations of any common conversation: We ask a question, then we get an answer. That is the way we ought to learn this useful skill. Chinese learners find it difficult to build English questions because we use a lot of Helper Verbs. The usage of Helper Verbs is not really a part of the Chinese language. So, what do we need to know?

For one, we must know all the possible ingredients, just as in a cooking recipe. Secondly, we must know what we use those ingredients for. Thirdly, we should know in what order we use the ingredients. And finally, we ought to know how we can extend a question in order to change its meaning. The main ingredients of English questions are the **Helper Verbs** (be, have, do) and **Modal Verbs** (will, shall, can, may, must, would, should, could, might, ought). With them we build questions in which we can hear answers like "yes" and "no".

The word order of such questions is always the same: Helper Verb (does) or Modal Verb (will, shall, etc.) – **Subject** (he) – (negation) (not) – Main **Verb** (do) – **Object** (his work?). So, the principal English word order "Subject – Verb – Object" exists also in questions. We only place a Helper Verb before it. But how do we build questions that ask for information? Answer: Exactly in the same way, only that we place a Question Word before the Helper Verb!

The Entire Range of Question Words

And here are the most common Question Words and their substitutes:

What?	Which?	Where? In / at / to what place?
Who ?	When? At what time?	Whether?
Whom?	Why? For what reason?	Whence?* From where?
Whose?	How? In what / which way? By what means?	Whither?* To where?

*The forms "whence" and "whither" are considered old-fashioned but they are still in use.

Some Question Words can build combinations with **Direction Words** (Prepositions), just like "From where?" or "To where?". These combinations are ideal to obtain precise answers in greater detail:

For what**	With what **	From what**	By what	To what
Of what**	Through what	In what	Into what	Out of what
For whom	With whom	From whom	By whom	To whom
Of whom	Through whom	In whom	Into whom	Out of whom

** The Preposition of such a combination can be put at the end of a sentence: *Where is it from? What is it from? What is it for?* etc. (Remark: "What **for**?" is usually a standalone question sentence used to express interest in knowing the reasoning behind some action. "**for** what" can be used in more complex sentences as in "for what reason" or "for what reasons".)

The Question Words "Which" and "what" are often both possible to use with little difference of meaning. "What" is preferred when the speaker is not thinking of any choice. "Which" is preferred when the speaker is thinking of a number of choices. (Mind: The following Nouns can be in plural too!):

In what way	In which way	In / at what place	In / at which place
In what size	In which size	From what place	From which place
At what price	At which price	To what place	To which place
At what time	At which time	In what situation	In which situation
By what means	By which means	In what position	In which position
At what date	At which date	In what direction	In which direction
On what day	On which day	In what distance	In which distance
For what (reason)	For which reason	In what manner	In which manner
On what grounds	On which grounds	In what amount	In which amount
With what feeling	With which feeling	For what purpose	For which purpose

Particularly, the Question word "How" can take almost any Adjective or Adverb. Examples in pairs of contrary meaning:

How much	How little	How many	How few	How often	How seldom
How good	How bad	How far	How near	How deep	How shallow
How clever	How stupid	How warm	How cool	How smooth	How rough
How tight	How loose	How early	How late	How wide	How narrow
How full	How empty	How high	How low	How fearful	How fearless
How long	How short	How big	How small	How cheap	How dear
How hot	How cold	How fast	How slowly	How useful	How useless

And it is even possible to ask with comparatives:

How much more	How much less	How much bigger	How much smaller
How much more expensive		How much less expensive	

Component Concept Of The English Verb Tense

Remember: These 2 main components build the English Verb tense:

1.) The *Helper Verb* or the *Modal Verb* (the Helper Verb "**do**" for Simple tenses, and "**be**" or "**have**" for Continuous, Perfect, and Passive tenses).

The **Subject** of a **Statement Sentence** (declarative sentence) comes directly **before the Helper Verb** "*do, does, did; am, is, are, was, were; have, has, had; will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought to*": "**He** can drive a big car", "**William** can drive a big car", "**My mother** can drive a big car".

The **Subject** of a **Question** (Interrogative Sentence) directly **follows the Helper Verb** "*do, does, did; am, is, are, was, were; have, has, had; will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought to*": "Can **he** drive a big car?", "Can **William** drive a big car?", "Can **my mother** drive a big car?". This kind of Question is a so-called "Yes-No-Question", which means that there will follow either a positive answer with "yes" or a negative answer with "no".

And if we want to ask for **information**, we just put a **Question word** such as "*what, why, who, with whom, for whom, when, how, whence, whither*" before the *Helper Verb* "*do, does, did; am, is, are, was, were; have, has, had; will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought to*": "**What can** William drive?", "**Why must** my mother drive the big car?", "**In which way must** my mother drive the big car?", "**For whom will** William drive the big car?"

TENSE	TO DO	TO BE	TO HAVE
Present	do / does (not)	am / is / are (not)	have / has (not)
Future	<i>will</i> (not)	<i>will</i> (not) be	<i>will</i> (not) have
Future	<i>shall</i> (not)	<i>shall</i> (not) be	<i>shall</i> (not) have
Future Modality	<i>can</i> (not)	<i>can</i> (not) be	<i>can</i> (not) have
Future Modality	<i>may</i> (not)	<i>may</i> (not) be	<i>may</i> (not) have
Future Modality	<i>must</i> (not)	<i>must</i> (not) be	<i>must</i> (not) have
Past	did (not)	was / were (not)	had (not)
Past Future	<i>would</i> (not)	<i>would</i> (not) be	<i>would</i> (not) have
Past Future	<i>should</i> (not)	<i>should</i> (not) be	<i>should</i> (not) have
Past Future Modality	<i>could</i> (not)	<i>could</i> (not) be	<i>could</i> (not) have
Past Future Modality	<i>might</i> (not)	<i>might</i> (not) be	<i>might</i> (not) have
Past Future Modality	<i>ought</i> (not) (to)	<i>ought</i> (not) (to) be	<i>ought</i> (not) (to) have

2.) To this Helper Verb or Modal Verb construction we add another component: The *main Verb in its **dictionary form** (Indicative)* for all Simple tenses (Mind the s-ending of the 3rd Person Singular when you do not use any Helper Verb!), or the main Verb in its form of a **Present Participle** or a **Past Participle** for Passive or Continuous:

ASPECT			
Simple Active	<i>drive</i>		
Simple Passive		<i>driven</i>	
Simple Contin. Av.		<i>driving</i>	
Simple Contin. Pv.		being driven	
Perfect Active			<i>driven</i>
Perfect Passive			been driven
Perfect Contin. Av.			been driving
Perfect Contin. Pv.			been being driven

The entire construction is followed by the **Object** or **Predicate** of the sentence: "He drives **a big car**" or "He does drive **a big car**", "He could be driving **home**". If there is no *Object*, the following Verbs can also serve as the *Predicate* of the sentence alone: "He **drives**", "He **is being driven**", "He **might have driven**".

Questions and Answers

The next chapter is an extensive **exercise lesson and tool for speaking** and has been created to give learners the chance to practise asking questions. The main objective is to get familiar with the way we ask questions in English. A second objective is to find suitable answers to those questions. The answers should be as simple and short as possible. Later, we can extend the answers.

I have arranged the questions in a kind of **rotation table** in which we can see the principle patterns in the first part of a question first. They are followed (in a box) by the second part which represents the complement or Object of the question. First and second parts can rotate, meaning any first part can be followed by any second part and we still have a correct question!

Learners must get used to these patterns as they are used in common English speech most frequently. Practise them and you will improve your English. Always be prepared! Remember: With the power to ask the right questions, you force the listener to give good answers! Is the answer not good however, there must be a reason for it!

**Verb Tense Pattern of the Magic
Verbs GET and PUT, Active Voice**

Let us begin with the following useful examples. We take the Verbs "Get" and "Put". These two Verbs have a special significance in the English language as we can express with them a much wider range of meaning than with any other Verb. The general meaning of "get" covers any kind of action or movement (as in "get in, get out, get off, get away") while the meaning of "put" covers any kind of change and placement (as is put on the light, put off the light, put on your jacket"). We use them in almost every situation. That is why students must get familiar with all forms and tenses of "get" and "put".

The huge power of the Verb "get" lies in its ability to get connected to almost any Direction Word, such as: **here, there, in, out, up, down, on, off, away, forwards, backwards, northwards, to the left, to the right**, etc.

On the right side are the 16 tenses of "get" in the Active Voice as Questions and answers:

Simple	Present:	Does he (not) get	<div> <i>sick / better / sad / happy</i> ? <i>a present / the car</i> ? <i>rid of it</i> ? <i>him angry / her silent</i> ? <i>it started / it finished</i> ? <i>it done / it solved</i> ? <i>it open / it closed</i> ? <i>it down / it up / it in / it out</i> ? <i>it / him / her / them / you</i> ? <i>it into the box</i> ? <i>it out of the box</i> ? <i>it put off / it switched on</i> ? <i>it decided / it achieved</i> ? <i>(it) changed / it performed</i> ? <i>there at five o'clock</i> ? </div>
	Past:	Did he (not) get	
	Future:	Will he (not) get	
	Past Future:	Would he (not) get	
	Present:	Is he (not) getting	
	Past:	Was he (not) getting	
	Future:	Will he (not) be getting	
	Past Future:	Would he (not) be getting	
	Present:	Has he (not) got	
	Past:	Had he (not) got	
	Future:	Will he (not) have got	
	Past Future:	Would he (not) have got	
	Present:	Has he (not) been getting	
	Past:	Had he (not) been getting	
	Future:	Will he (not) have been getting	
	Past Future:	Would he (not) have been getting	
Simple	Present:	He gets / He does (not) get	<div> <i>sick / better / sad / happy</i> . <i>a present / the car</i> . <i>rid of it</i> . <i>him angry / her silent</i> . <i>it started / it finished</i> . <i>it done / it solved</i> . <i>it open / it closed</i> . <i>it down / it up / it in / it out</i> . <i>it / him / her / them / you</i> . <i>it into the box</i> . <i>it out of the box</i> . <i>it put off / it switched on</i> . <i>it decided / it achieved</i> . <i>(it) changed / it performed</i> . <i>there at five o'clock</i> . </div>
	Past:	He got / He did (not) get	
	Future:	He will (not) get	
	Past Future:	He would (not) get	
	Present:	He is (not) getting	
	Past:	He was (not) getting	
	Future:	He will (not) be getting	
	Past Future:	He would (not) be getting	
	Present:	He has (not) got	
	Past:	He had (not) got	
	Future:	He will (not) have got	
	Past Future:	He would (not) have got	
	Present:	He has (not) been getting	
	Past:	He had (not) been getting	
	Future:	He will (not) have been getting	
	Past Future:	He would (not) have been getting	

And here we see the 16 tenses of "put" in the Active Voice as Questions and answers.

We do not need to bother about Passive forms here as they are rarely used.

Bear in mind: Instead of *will* and *would*, we can use also *shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought to*. You will immediately notice that these Modal Verbs can have a Future tense meaning. That is why we should practise the rotation table with them as well!

And instead of those true Modal Verbs, we also can use substitutes such as *appear to, have to, had to, need to, seem to, like to, wish to, want to, love to, dare to, hope to, used to, avoid to, decide to; be to, get to, be going to, be able to, be allowed to*. Please practise the rotation table with these substitutes too!

After this, we will see a general question and answer pattern with the Verb "drive" in all Simple tenses, Simple Continuous tenses, Perfect tenses, and Perfect Continuous tenses, first in the Active Voice, then in the Passive Voice, 16 tables in all. They serve as a model for the following rotation tables.

Simple	Present:	<i>Do we (not) put</i>	{	<i>it in the box</i>	?
	Past:	<i>Did we (not) put</i>		<i>it on / off / away</i>	?
	Future:	<i>Will we (not) put</i>		<i>it inside / it outside</i>	?
	Past Future:	<i>Would we (not) put</i>		<i>it on the table</i>	?
Simple Continuous	Present:	<i>Are we (not) putting</i>	{	<i>it in the newspaper</i>	?
	Past:	<i>Were we (not) putting</i>		<i>him off / her off</i>	?
	Future:	<i>Will we (not) be putting</i>		<i>them on display</i>	?
	Past Future:	<i>Would we (not) be putting</i>		<i>it on schedule</i>	?
Perfect	Present:	<i>Have we (not) put</i>	{	<i>lots of it on the list</i>	?
	Past:	<i>Had we (not) put</i>		<i>here / there</i>	?
	Future:	<i>Will we (not) have put</i>		<i>them far away</i>	?
	Past Future:	<i>Would we (not) have put</i>		<i>it onto his account</i>	?
Perfect Continuous	Present:	<i>Have we (not) been putting</i>	{	<i>it out of his mind</i>	?
	Past:	<i>Had we (not) been putting</i>		<i>it to his attention</i>	?
	Future:	<i>Will we (not) have been putting</i>		<i>the key in the lock</i>	?
	Past Future:	<i>Would we (not) have been putting</i>			

Simple	Present:	<i>We put / We do (not) put</i>	{	<i>it in the box</i>	.
	Past:	<i>We put / We did (not) put</i>		<i>it on / off / away</i>	.
	Future:	<i>We will (not) put</i>		<i>it inside / it outside</i>	.
	Past Future:	<i>We would (not) put</i>		<i>it on the table</i>	.
Simple Continuous	Present:	<i>We are (not) putting</i>	{	<i>it in the newspaper</i>	.
	Past:	<i>We were (not) putting</i>		<i>him off / her off</i>	.
	Future:	<i>We will (not) be putting</i>		<i>them on display</i>	.
	Past Future:	<i>We would (not) be putting</i>		<i>it on schedule</i>	.
Perfect	Present:	<i>We have (not) put</i>	{	<i>lots of it on the list</i>	.
	Past:	<i>We had (not) put</i>		<i>here / there</i>	.
	Future:	<i>We will (not) have put</i>		<i>them far away</i>	.
	Past Future:	<i>We would (not) have put</i>		<i>it onto his account</i>	.
Perfect Continuous	Present:	<i>We have (not) been putting</i>	{	<i>it out of his mind</i>	.
	Past:	<i>We had (not) been putting</i>		<i>it to his attention</i>	.
	Future:	<i>We will (not) have been putting</i>		<i>the key in the lock</i>	.
	Past Future:	<i>We would (not) have been putting</i>			.

Pattern No. 1

SIMPLE TENSES 基础时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

With Simple tenses we talk about plain facts. When there is a Present tense, there must be a Past tense. Both build 2 groups. Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Does he (not)</i>	} drive home ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not)</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not)</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not)</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not)</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not)</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Did he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not)</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not)</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not)</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not)</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He does (not)</i>	} drive home .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not)</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not)</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not)</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not)</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He must (not)</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>He did (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not)</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not)</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not)</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to</i>	

Pattern No. 2

SIMPLE CONTINUOUS TENSES 基础进行的时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

With Continuous tenses we express the aspect of a continueing or progressing action at a certain position of time: Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Is he (not)</i>	} driving home ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Was he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) be</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He is (not)</i>	} driving home .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>He was (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to be</i>	

Pattern No. 3

PERFECT TENSES 完成时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

With the Perfect tense we express the aspect of a (probably quite recently) completed or accomplished action. Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has he (not)</i>	} driven home ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) have</i>	
	Past tense:	<i>Had he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) have</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He has (not)</i>	} driven home .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) have</i>	
	Past tense:	<i>He had (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to have</i>	

Pattern No. 4

PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSES 完成进行的时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

With the Perfect Continuous tense we express a progressing action while it heads to its completion. Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has he (not)</i>	} been driving home ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) have</i>	
	Past tense:	<i>Had he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) have</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He has (not)</i>	} been driving home .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) have</i>	
	Past tense:	<i>He had (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to have</i>	

Pattern No. 5

SIMPLE TENSES 基础时态, **Passive Voice** 被动语态

With Simple tenses we talk about plain facts. With the Passive Voice, however, we can hide the acting part. Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Is he (not)</i>	} driven home (by Jim) ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Was he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) be</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He is (not)</i>	} driven home (by Jim) .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>He was (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to be</i>	

Pattern No. 6

SIMPLE CONTINUOUS TENSES 基础进行的时态, **Passive Voice** 被动语态

With Continuous tenses we express the aspect of a continueing or progressing action at a certain position of time: Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Is he (not)</i>	} being driven home (by Jim) ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Was he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) be</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He is (not)</i>	} being driven home (by Jim) .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>He was (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to be</i>	

Pattern No. 7

PERFECT TENSES 完成时态, **Passive Voice** 被动语态,

With the Perfect tense we express the aspect of a (probably quite recently) completed or accomplished action. Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has he (not)</i>	} been driven home (by Jim) ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Had he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) have</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He has (not)</i>	} been driven home (by Jim) .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>He had (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to have</i>	

Pattern No. 8

PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSES 完成进行的时态, **Pass. Voice** 被动语态

With the Perfect Continuous tense we express the progressing action while it heads to its completion. Questions:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has he (not)</i>	} been being driven home (by Jim) ?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Had he (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not) have</i>	

In a Question, the Subject follows the Helper Verb. In an answer or statement the Subject stands before the Helper Verb: The answers:

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>He has (not)</i>	} been being driven home (by Jim) .
	Future tense:	<i>He will (not) have</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>He shall (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He can (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He may (not) have</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>He must (not) have</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>He had (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He would (not) have</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>He should (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He could (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He might (not) have</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>He ought (not) to have</i>	

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 1

SIMPLE TENSES 基础时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

Practising Questions with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables really can improve your ability to build sentences. We see the Verb tense part with the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs, and in the box we can see 11 examples of the second half of the sentence. Each of them can be used with any of the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. 12 times 11, that is 132, and with "not" **264** Questions in each little table! Practise this Rotation Table which contains the Subject "he" and the Object "it":

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Does he (not)</i>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>do it</i> <i>make it</i> <i>get it</i> <i>put it there</i> <i>perform it</i> <i>think of it</i> <i>say it</i> <i>talk about it</i> <i>look at it</i> <i>work on it</i> <i>achieve it</i> </div>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Will he (not)</i>		?
	Future tense:	<i>Shall he (not)</i>		?
	Future modality:	<i>Can he (not)</i>		?
	Future modality:	<i>May he (not)</i>		?
	Future modality:	<i>Must he (not)</i>		?
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Did he (not)</i>		?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would he (not)</i>		?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should he (not)</i>		?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could he (not)</i>		?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might he (not)</i>		?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought he (not)</i>		?

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Does he do it?", "Does he **not** do it?", "Will he do it?", "Will he **not** do it?", "Shall he do it?", "Shall he **not** do it?", "Can he do it?", "Can he **not** do it?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Does he make it?", "Does he **not** make it?", "Will he make it?", "Will he **not** make it?", "Shall he make it?", "Shall he **not** make it?", "Can he make it?", "Can he **not** make it?", and so on.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, he does do it!", "No, he does **not** do it!", "Yes, he will do it!", "No, he will **not** do it!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is **no** Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What does he</i>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>do</i> <i>make</i> <i>get</i> <i>put there</i> <i>perform</i> <i>think</i> <i>say</i> <i>talk about</i> <i>look at</i> <i>work on</i> <i>achieve</i> </div>	?
<i>What will he</i>		?
<i>What shall he</i>		?
<i>What can he</i>		?
<i>What may he</i>		?
<i>What must he</i>		?
<i>What did he</i>		?
<i>What would he</i>		?
<i>What should he</i>		?
<i>What could he</i>		?
<i>What might he</i>		?
<i>What ought he</i>		?

Task: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What does he do?" Then give any possible answer like: "He does work!" or "he works", "He does **not** work!"; "What will he do?" Answer: "He will work!", "He will **not** work!", and so on.

Information: The Simple Tenses are most frequently used as they cover about 70% of all conversations and texts. They must be learnt and practised!

We now practise the very first Rotation Table again. We can give a Question another "colour" of expression by adding **"have to, have got to, need to, appear to, seem to, dare to, wish to, want to, like to, love to, desire to, hope to, decide to, avoid to"**:

<i>Does he (not) have to</i>	<i>do it</i>	?
<i>Will he (not) have to</i>	<i>make it</i>	?
<i>Shall he (not) have to</i>	<i>get it</i>	?
<i>Can he (not) have to</i>	<i>put it there</i>	?
<i>May he (not) have to</i>	<i>perform it</i>	?
<i>Must he (not) have to</i>	<i>think of it</i>	?
<i>Did he (not) have to</i>	<i>say it</i>	?
<i>Would he (not) have to</i>	<i>talk about it</i>	?
<i>Should he (not) have to</i>	<i>look at it</i>	?
<i>Could he (not) have to</i>	<i>work on it</i>	?
<i>Might he (not) have to</i>	<i>achieve it</i>	?
<i>Ought he (not) have to</i>		

We can give the following Question other qualities by adding Adverbs like: **"always, often, sometimes, seldom, never, ever, quickly, slowly, willingly, reluctantly"**:

<i>Does he (not) often</i>	<i>do it</i>	?
<i>Will he (not) often</i>	<i>make it</i>	?
<i>Shall he (not) often</i>	<i>get it</i>	?
<i>Can he (not) often</i>	<i>put it there</i>	?
<i>May he (not) often</i>	<i>perform it</i>	?
<i>Must he (not) often</i>	<i>think of it</i>	?
<i>Did he (not) often</i>	<i>say it</i>	?
<i>Would he (not) often</i>	<i>talk about it</i>	?
<i>Should he (not) often</i>	<i>look at it</i>	?
<i>Could he (not) often</i>	<i>work on it</i>	?
<i>Might he (not) often</i>	<i>achieve it</i>	?
<i>Ought he (not) often</i>		

We can give the next Question another expression by making a combination of the two tables that we have just seen:

<i>Does he (not) often have to</i>	<i>do it</i>	?
<i>Will he (not) often have to</i>	<i>make it</i>	?
<i>Shall he (not) often have to</i>	<i>get it</i>	?
<i>Can he (not) often have to</i>	<i>put it there</i>	?
<i>May he (not) often have to</i>	<i>perform it</i>	?
<i>Must he (not) often have to</i>	<i>think of it</i>	?
<i>Did he (not) often have to</i>	<i>say it</i>	?
<i>Would he (not) often have to</i>	<i>talk about it</i>	?
<i>Should he (not) often have to</i>	<i>look at it</i>	?
<i>Could he (not) often have to</i>	<i>work on it</i>	?
<i>Might he (not) often have to</i>	<i>achieve it</i>	?
<i>Ought he (not) often have to</i>		

Now again we see sentences with no Object. also can use: **"have got to, need to, appear to, seem to, dare to, wish to, want to, like to, love to, desire to, hope to, decide to, avoid to"**:

<i>What does he have to</i>	<i>do</i>	?
<i>What will he have to</i>	<i>make</i>	?
<i>What shall he have to</i>	<i>get</i>	?
<i>What can he have to</i>	<i>put there</i>	?
<i>What may he have to</i>	<i>perform</i>	?
<i>What must he have to</i>	<i>think of</i>	?
<i>What did he have to</i>	<i>say</i>	?
<i>What would he have to</i>	<i>talk about</i>	?
<i>What should he have to</i>	<i>look at</i>	?
<i>What could he have to</i>	<i>work on</i>	?
<i>What might he have to</i>	<i>achieve</i>	?
<i>What ought he have to</i>		

Now we put "**how**" before the Helper and Modal Verbs. Instead of "**how**" we also could use "**when**", "**where**", "**why**". Combinations are most effective: "**in / at what place**", "**in what / which way, by what / which means, at what / which time, in what / which manner, with what / which feeling, for what / which purpose**":

<i>How does he (not)</i>	do it	?
<i>How will he (not)</i>	make it	?
<i>How shall he (not)</i>	get it	?
<i>How can he (not)</i>	put it there	?
<i>How may he (not)</i>	perform it	?
<i>How must he (not)</i>	think of it	?
<i>How did he (not)</i>	say it	?
<i>How would he (not)</i>	talk about it	?
<i>How should he (not)</i>	look at it	?
<i>How could he (not)</i>	work on it	?
<i>How might he (not)</i>	achieve it	?
<i>How ought he (not)</i>		

We can give the Question Word "**how**" a quality with "**often, many times, long, fast, quickly**":

<i>How often does he (not)</i>	do it	?
<i>How often will he (not)</i>	make it	?
<i>How often shall he (not)</i>	get it	?
<i>How often can he (not)</i>	put it there	?
<i>How often may he (not)</i>	perform it	?
<i>How often must he (not)</i>	think of it	?
<i>How often did he (not)</i>	say it	?
<i>How often would he (not)</i>	talk about it	?
<i>How often should he (not)</i>	look at it	?
<i>How often could he (not)</i>	work on it	?
<i>How often might he (not)</i>	achieve it	?
<i>How often ought he (not)</i>		

Instead of "**how often**" we also can use "**how frequently**", "**how many times**" or "**how long time**":

<i>How often does he (not) have to</i>	do it	?
<i>How often will he (not) have to</i>	make it	?
<i>How often shall he (not) have to</i>	get it	?
<i>How often can he (not) have to</i>	put it there	?
<i>How often may he (not) have to</i>	perform it	?
<i>How often must he (not) have to</i>	think of it	?
<i>How often did he (not) have to</i>	say it	?
<i>How often would he (not) have to</i>	talk about it	?
<i>How often should he (not) have to</i>	look at it	?
<i>How often could he (not) have to</i>	work on it	?
<i>How often might he (not) have to</i>	achieve it	?
<i>How often ought he (not) have to</i>		

We can ask for the reason with "**why**", "**on what ground(s)**", "**for what**" or "**for what reason(s)**". Instead of "**have to**" we also can use: "**have got to, need to, appear to, seem to, dare to, wish to, want to, like to, love to, desire to, hope to, decide to, avoid to**":

<i>Why does he (not) often have to</i>	do it	?
<i>Why will he (not) often have to</i>	make it	?
<i>Why shall he (not) often have to</i>	get it	?
<i>Why can he (not) often have to</i>	put it there	?
<i>Why may he (not) often have to</i>	perform it	?
<i>Why must he (not) often have to</i>	think of it	?
<i>Why did he (not) often have to</i>	say it	?
<i>Why would he (not) often have to</i>	talk about it	?
<i>Why should he (not) often have to</i>	look at it	?
<i>Why could he (not) often have to</i>	work on it	?
<i>Why might he (not) often have to</i>	achieve it	?
<i>Why ought he (not) often have to</i>		

We can change the Question Word to other Question Words, for example to **"for whom"** or **"with whom"**. **Extra Task:** Change the Subject "he" for "Francis" or "my friend", etc.:

<i>For whom does he (not)</i>	do it	?
<i>For whom will he (not)</i>	make it	?
<i>For whom shall he (not)</i>	get it	?
<i>For whom can he (not)</i>	put it there	?
<i>For whom may he (not)</i>	perform it	?
<i>For whom must he (not)</i>	think of it	?
<i>For whom did he (not)</i>	say it	?
<i>For whom would he (not)</i>	talk about it	?
<i>For whom should he (not)</i>	look at it	?
<i>For whom could he (not)</i>	work on it	?
<i>For whom might he (not)</i>	achieve it	?
<i>For whom ought he (not)</i>		

Instead of **"where"** we also could use **"when"**, **"how"**, **"why"**. Please, try to replace the Object "it" for other Objects, such as "the game, the competition, the parcel". But attention: They must make sense!

<i>Where does he (not) have to</i>	do it	?
<i>Where will he (not) have to</i>	make it	?
<i>Where shall he (not) have to</i>	get it	?
<i>Where can he (not) have to</i>	put it there	?
<i>Where may he (not) have to</i>	perform it	?
<i>Where must he (not) have to</i>	think of it	?
<i>Where did he (not) have to</i>	say it	?
<i>Where would he (not) have to</i>	talk about it	?
<i>Where should he (not) have to</i>	look at it	?
<i>Where could he (not) have to</i>	work on it	?
<i>Where might he (not) have to</i>	achieve it	?
<i>Where ought he (not) have to</i>		

We can ask what person may benefit from an action. And again, here also we can give a Question another expression by adding **"have to, have got to, need to, appear to, seem to, dare to, wish to, want to, like to, love to, desire to, hope to, decide to, avoid to"**:

<i>For whom does he (not) have to</i>	do it	?
<i>For whom will he (not) have to</i>	make it	?
<i>For whom shall he (not) have to</i>	get it	?
<i>For whom can he (not) have to</i>	put it there	?
<i>For whom may he (not) have to</i>	perform it	?
<i>For whom must he (not) have to</i>	think of it	?
<i>For whom did he (not) have to</i>	say it	?
<i>For whom would he (not) have to</i>	talk about it	?
<i>For whom should he (not) have to</i>	look at it	?
<i>For whom could he (not) have to</i>	work on it	?
<i>For whom might he (not) have to</i>	achieve it	?
<i>For whom ought he (not) have to</i>		

In the next examples we can see entire phrases as Object or predicate. In the brackets we see Adverbial extensions to those phrases or words. We can change **"how"** for **"where"** or **"why"**:

<i>How does she</i>	do that (well)	?
<i>How will she</i>	make it (work)	?
<i>How shall she</i>	get it (done)	?
<i>How can she</i>	put it there	?
<i>How may she</i>	go there (on time)	?
<i>How must she</i>	come (by it)	?
<i>How did she</i>	say it (nicely)	?
<i>How would she</i>	talk (about him)	?
<i>How should she</i>	look for it	?
<i>How could she</i>	work (on it)	?
<i>How might she</i>	achieve that	?
<i>How ought she</i>		

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The Question Word **"who"** can be changed into other Phrases such as "what person", "what kind of person", "what sort of person":

<i>Who does (not)</i>	}	do that (well)	?
<i>Who will (not)</i>		make it (work)	?
<i>Who shall (not)</i>		get it (done)	?
<i>Who can (not)</i>		put it there	?
<i>Who may (not)</i>		go there (on time)	?
<i>Who must (not)</i>		come (by it)	?
<i>Who did (not)</i>		say it (nicely)	?
<i>Who would (not)</i>		talk (about him)	?
<i>Who should (not)</i>		look (at it)	?
<i>Who could (not)</i>		work (on it)	?
<i>Who might (not)</i>		achieve that	?
<i>Who ought (not)</i>			


Now we change the Predicate and Object into just a single Verb. **Task:** Please, change the Question Word **"what"** into **"which one"** or **"whose one"** then change the qualifier **"one"** into Nouns such as "shirt", "tool", "meal", "dish", "car", "pair of shoes" or "book", "advice", "work", "task", "job": Then give your own answers:

<i>What does she (not)</i>	}	take	?
<i>What will she (not)</i>		choose	?
<i>What shall she (not)</i>		give me	?
<i>What can she (not)</i>		show them	?
<i>What may she (not)</i>		mean	?
<i>What must she (not)</i>		buy	?
<i>What did she (not)</i>		want	?
<i>What would she (not)</i>		like	?
<i>What should she (not)</i>		consider	?
<i>What could she (not)</i>		prefer	?
<i>What might she (not)</i>		support	?
<i>What ought she (not)</i>			

Task: Please, change **"whom"** into "what man", "which man", "what person", "which person", "what employee", "which employee", "what lawyer", "which lawyer":

<i>Whom does she (not)</i>	}	take	?
<i>Whom will she (not)</i>		choose	?
<i>Whom shall she (not)</i>		ask	?
<i>Whom can she (not)</i>		show me	?
<i>Whom may she (not)</i>		mean	?
<i>Whom must she (not)</i>		hire	?
<i>Whom did she (not)</i>		want	?
<i>Whom would she (not)</i>		like	?
<i>Whom should she (not)</i>		consider	?
<i>Whom could she (not)</i>		prefer	?
<i>Whom might she (not)</i>		support	?
<i>Whom ought she (not)</i>			

Here we can see entire phrases as Object. **Task:** Please, change the Subject "you" into "I, he, she, we, they":

<i>Where do you</i>		take it from	?
<i>Where will you</i>		choose it from	?
<i>Where shall you</i>		ask (for it)	?
<i>Where can you</i>		show it	?
<i>Where may you</i>		write it down	?
<i>Where must you</i>		hire it (from)	?
<i>Where did you</i>		want it from	?
<i>Where would you</i>		like it from	?
<i>Where should you</i>		publish it	?
<i>Where could you</i>		bring it to	?
<i>Where might you</i>		give it to	?
<i>Where ought you</i>			

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With "**whither**" we have another Question Word. It is a bit old-fashioned but we still use it from time to time. Nowadays we rather say "**to what place**":

<i>Whither do we</i>	}	go	?
<i>Whither will we</i>		walk	?
<i>Whither shall we</i>		wander	?
<i>Whither can we</i>		drive	?
<i>Whither may we</i>		show	?
<i>Whither must we</i>		get (it)	?
<i>Whither did we</i>		put (it)	?
<i>Whither would we</i>		move (it)	?
<i>Whither should we</i>		give (it)	?
<i>Whither could we</i>		bring (it)	?
<i>Whither might we</i>		write (it)	?
<i>Whither ought we</i>			

With "where to" we can even use a third form. Mind that native speakers often omit "to" at the end of the Predicate:

<i>Where do we</i>	}	go	}	<i>to?</i>
<i>Where will we</i>		walk		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where shall we</i>		wander		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where can we</i>		drive		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where may we</i>		show		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where must we</i>		get (it)		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where did we</i>		put (it)		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where would we</i>		move (it)		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where should we</i>		give (it)		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where could we</i>		bring (it)		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where might we</i>		write (it)		<i>to?</i>
<i>Where ought we</i>				<i>to?</i>

With "**whence**" we have a Question Word that expresses the opposite of "whither". It is old-fashioned too. Nowadays we rather say "**from what place**":

<i>Whence does it</i>	}	come (in / out)	?
<i>Whence will it</i>		turn up	?
<i>Whence shall it</i>		move (in / out)	?
<i>Whence can it</i>		advance	?
<i>Whence may it</i>		appear	?
<i>Whence must it</i>		approach	?
<i>Whence did it</i>		arrive	?
<i>Whence would it</i>		flow (in / out)	?
<i>Whence should it</i>		happen	?
<i>Whence could it</i>		occur	?
<i>Whence might it</i>		originate	?
<i>Whence ought it</i>			

And here too, we have another form. Mind that native speakers often omit "to" at the end of the Predicate:

<i>Where does it</i>	}	come (in / out)	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where will it</i>		turn up	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where shall it</i>		move (in / out)	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where can it</i>		advance	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where may it</i>		appear	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where must it</i>		approach	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where did it</i>		arrive	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where would it</i>		flow (in / out)	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where should it</i>		happen	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where could it</i>		occur	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where might it</i>		originate	<i>from?</i>
<i>Where ought it</i>			

"**Whether**" is the only English Question Word that stands not at the beginning of a Question. Instead, it follows the Main Verb in the box. After that follows a second sentence (or clause) in the usual English word order Subject-Verb-Object:

<i>Does she (not)</i>	<div> <i>know whether</i> <i>see whether</i> <i>hear whether</i> <i>feel whether</i> <i>notice whether</i> <i>learn whether</i> <i>tell whether</i> <i>say whether</i> <i>mention whether</i> <i>find out whether</i> <i>understand whether</i> </div>	<i>he is coming?</i>
<i>Will she (not)</i>		<i>he is coming on Friday?</i>
<i>Shall she (not)</i>		<i>there is enough time?</i>
<i>Can she (not)</i>		<i>there is food (available)?</i>
<i>May she (not)</i>		<i>he comes by train?</i>
<i>Must she (not)</i>		<i>everything is all right?</i>
<i>Did she (not)</i>		<i>it is Jim?</i>
<i>Would she (not)</i>		<i>they have plans for the stay?</i>
<i>Should she (not)</i>		<i>that man is rich?</i>
<i>Could she (not)</i>		<i>Mr Benson has a job?</i>
<i>Might she (not)</i>		<i>Jim travels alone?</i>
<i>Ought she (not)</i>		<i>law is justice?</i>

The entire Question can even begin with a Question Word. Here we can see "**how**", but we also can use "**why**", "**when**" or "**at what time**" :

<i>How does she (not)</i>	<div> <i>know whether</i> <i>see whether</i> <i>hear whether</i> <i>feel whether</i> <i>notice whether</i> <i>learn whether</i> <i>tell whether</i> <i>say whether</i> <i>mention whether</i> <i>find out whether</i> <i>understand whether</i> </div>	<i>he is coming?</i>
<i>How will she (not)</i>		<i>he is coming on Friday?</i>
<i>How shall she (not)</i>		<i>there is enough time?</i>
<i>How can she (not)</i>		<i>there is food (available)?</i>
<i>How may she (not)</i>		<i>he comes by train?</i>
<i>How must she (not)</i>		<i>everything is all right?</i>
<i>How did she (not)</i>		<i>it is Jim?</i>
<i>How would she (not)</i>		<i>they have plans for the stay?</i>
<i>How should she (not)</i>		<i>that man is rich?</i>
<i>How could she (not)</i>		<i>Mr Benson has a job?</i>
<i>How might she (not)</i>		<i>Jim travels alone?</i>
<i>How ought she (not)</i>		<i>law is justice?</i>

The second clause can be extended with "**or not**". The negative indicator "or not" can stand at the beginning of the clause following directly the Question Word "whether", or we can place it at the end of the entire sentence. Look:

(How / Why / When / At what time) does, will, shall, can, may, must did, would, should, could, might, ought she know **whether** ...

<i>or not he is coming?</i>	<i>he is coming or not ?</i>
<i>or not he is coming on Friday?</i>	<i>he is coming on Friday or not ?</i>
<i>or not there is enough time?</i>	<i>there is enough time or not ?</i>
<i>or not there is food (available)?</i>	<i>there is food (available) or not ?</i>
<i>or not he comes by train?</i>	<i>he comes by train or not ?</i>
<i>or not everything is all right?</i>	<i>everything is all right or not ?</i>
<i>or not it is Jim?</i>	<i>it is Jim or not ?</i>
<i>or not they have plans for the stay?</i>	<i>they have plans for the stay or not ?</i>
<i>or not that man is rich?</i>	<i>that man is rich or not ?</i>
<i>or not Mr Benson has a job?</i>	<i>Mr Benson has a job or not ?</i>
<i>or not Jim travels alone?</i>	<i>Jim travels alone or not ?</i>
<i>or not law is justice?</i>	<i>law is justice or not ?</i>

Sometimes we even put it in the middle of the second clause, directly behind the Main Verb. Besides "or not", we also can make the little "or"-clause wider. Look again:

(How / Why / When) does, will, shall, can, may, must did, would, should, could, might, ought she know **whether** ...

... he is coming **or not** on Friday ? / ... he comes by train **or by car** ? / ... it is Jim **or his twin brother James** ? / ... Jim travels alone **or with company** ? / ... law is justice **or only an empty rule** ?

Remember: Lots of native speakers use "if" although they actually mean "whether". Use "if" only when there is no choice between two or more options: Jim can come to our home if he has time. The other way round: If he has time, Jim can come to our home. Using "whether" would not make sense here.

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 2

SIMPLE CONTINUOUS TENSES 基础进行的时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

Keep in mind: When there is a Simple Tense there could be a Simple Continuous Tense too. We see 264 Questions in each little table again. But now, we shall practise some Simple Continuous Tenses shown in the following Rotation Table. The Subject is "she" and the Object again is "it":

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Is she (not)</i>	<div> <i>doing it</i> ? <i>making it</i> ? <i>getting it</i> ? <i>putting it there</i> ? <i>performing it</i> ? <i>thinking of it</i> ? <i>saying it</i> ? <i>talking about it</i> ? <i>looking at it</i> ? <i>working on it</i> ? <i>achieving it</i> ? </div>
	Future tense:	<i>Will she (not) be</i>	
	Future tense:	<i>Shall she (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Can she (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>May she (not) be</i>	
	Future modality:	<i>Must she (not) be</i>	
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Was she (not)</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would she (not) be</i>	
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should she (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could she (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might she (not) be</i>	
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought she (not) be</i>	

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Is she doing it?", "Is she **not** doing it?", "Will she be doing it?", "Will she **not** be doing it?", "Shall she be doing it?", "Shall she **not be** doing it?", "Can she be doing it?", "Can she **not** be doing it?", etc. Then use the second sentence in the box: "Is she making it?", "Is she **not** making it?", "Will she be making it?", "Will she **not** be making it?", "Shall she be making it?", "Shall she **not** be making it?", etc.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, she is doing it!", "No, she is **not** doing it!", "Yes, she will be doing it!", "No, she will **not** be doing it!", and so on.

Remember: With the Simple Continuous tense we also ask and talk about the **near Future**: When is she coming? She is coming at 3 o'clock tomorrow afternoon!

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is **no** Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What is she (not)</i>	<div> <i>doing</i> ? <i>making</i> ? <i>getting</i> ? <i>putting there</i> ? <i>performing</i> ? <i>thinking (of)</i> ? <i>saying</i> ? <i>talking about</i> ? <i>looking at</i> ? <i>working on</i> ? <i>achieving</i> ? </div>
<i>What will she (not) be</i>	
<i>What shall she (not) be</i>	
<i>What can she (not) be</i>	
<i>What may she (not) be</i>	
<i>What must she (not) be</i>	
<i>What was she (not)</i>	
<i>What would she (not) be</i>	
<i>What should she (not) be</i>	
<i>What could she (not) be</i>	
<i>What might she (not) be</i>	
<i>What ought she (not) be</i>	

Task: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is she doing?" Then give any possible answer like: "She is working!", "She is **not** working!"; "What will she be doing?" Answer: "She will be working!", "She will **not** be working!", and so on.

Hint: In Continuous Tense Questions, we do not use Modal Verb replacements such as "**appear to, seem to, dare to, have to, need to, wish to, want to, like to, love to, desire to, hope to, decide to, avoid to**". But they can appear in answers and we have to add "**be**" to it: "She appears to be doing it; She wants to be making it", etc.

Instead of "**where**" we also could use "**when**", "**why**", "**how**".
Combinations are most effective: "**in / at what place**", "**in what / which way, by what / which means, at what / which time, in what / which manner, with what / which feeling, for what / which reason, for what / which purpose**:"

<i>Where is she (not)</i>	}	doing it	?
<i>Where will she (not) be</i>		making it	?
<i>Where shall she (not) be</i>		getting it	?
<i>Where can she (not) be</i>		putting it there	?
<i>Where may she (not) be</i>		performing it	?
<i>Where must she (not) be</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>Where was she (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>Where would she (not) be</i>		talking about it	?
<i>Where should she (not) be</i>		looking at it	?
<i>Where could she (not) be</i>		working on it	?
<i>Where might she (not) be</i>		achieving it	?
<i>Where ought she (not) be</i>			

The same Question can be asked with "for whom":

<i>For whom is she (not)</i>	}	doing it	?
<i>For whom will she (not) be</i>		making it	?
<i>For whom shall she (not) be</i>		getting it	?
<i>For whom can she (not) be</i>		putting it there	?
<i>For whom may she (not) be</i>		performing it	?
<i>For whom must she (not) be</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>For whom was she (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>For whom would she (not) be</i>		talking about it	?
<i>For whom should she (not) be</i>		looking at it	?
<i>For whom could she (not) be</i>		working on it	?
<i>For whom might she (not) be</i>		achieving it	?
<i>For whom ought she (not) be</i>			

In Continuous Tenses we can use "**often, many times, long, fast, quickly**":

<i>How often is she (not)</i>	}	doing it	?
<i>How often will she (not) be</i>		making it	?
<i>How often shall she (not) be</i>		getting it	?
<i>How often can she (not) be</i>		putting it there	?
<i>How often may she (not) be</i>		performing it	?
<i>How often must she (not) be</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>How often was she (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>How often would she (not) be</i>		talking about it	?
<i>How often should she (not) be</i>		looking at it	?
<i>How often could she (not) be</i>		working on it	?
<i>How often might she (not) be</i>		achieving it	?
<i>How often ought she (not) be</i>			

Here, "often" has another position. The Question "How often is she doing it" means "How many times is she doing it? The Question "How is she often doing it? means "In what way is she often doing it?"

<i>How is she often (not)</i>	}	doing it	?
<i>How will she often (not) be</i>		making it	?
<i>How shall she often (not) be</i>		getting it	?
<i>How can she often (not) be</i>		putting it there	?
<i>How may she often (not) be</i>		performing it	?
<i>How must she often (not) be</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>How was she often (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>How would she often (not) be</i>		talking about it	?
<i>How should she often (not) be</i>		looking at it	?
<i>How could she often (not) be</i>		working on it	?
<i>How might she often (not) be</i>		achieving it	?
<i>How ought she often (not) be</i>			

Here we can see variation with "**With what feeling**". Instead of "often" we can ask Questions with "**many times, long, fast, quickly**" or other time words::

<i>With what feeling is she often (not)</i>	}	<i>doing it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling will she often (not) be</i>		<i>making it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling shall she often (not) be</i>		<i>getting it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling can she often (not) be</i>		<i>putting it there</i>	?
<i>With what feeling may she often (not) be</i>		<i>performing it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling must she often (not) be</i>		<i>thinking of it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling was she often (not)</i>		<i>saying it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling would she often (not) be</i>		<i>talking about it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling should she often (not) be</i>		<i>looking at it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling could she often (not) be</i>		<i>working on it</i>	?
<i>With what feeling might she often (not) be</i>			
<i>With what feeling ought she often (not) be</i>		<i>achieving it</i>	?

And, of course, we can make Questions with "what" and "**often, many times, long, fast, quickly**":

<i>What is she often (not)</i>	}	<i>doing</i>	?
<i>What will she often (not) be</i>		<i>making</i>	?
<i>What shall she often (not) be</i>		<i>getting</i>	?
<i>What can she often (not) be</i>		<i>putting there</i>	?
<i>What may she often (not) be</i>		<i>performing</i>	?
<i>What must she often (not) be</i>		<i>thinking (of)</i>	?
<i>What was she often (not)</i>		<i>saying</i>	?
<i>What would she often (not) be</i>		<i>talking about</i>	?
<i>What should she often (not) be</i>		<i>looking at</i>	?
<i>What could she often (not) be</i>		<i>working on</i>	?
<i>What might she often (not) be</i>		<i>achieving</i>	?
<i>What ought she often (not) be</i>			

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 3

PERFECT TENSES 完成时态, Active Voice 主动语态,

Keep in mind: When there is a Simple Tense there must be a Perfect Tense too. Practising Questions in any Perfect Tense is also easy with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables.

Now, we shall practise the following Rotation Table which contains the Subject "she" and the Object "it":

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has she (not)</i>	}	<i>done it</i>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Will she (not) have</i>		<i>made it</i>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Shall she (not) have</i>		<i>got it</i>	?
	Future modality:	<i>Can she (not) have</i>		<i>put it there</i>	?
	Future modality:	<i>May she (not) have</i>		<i>performed it</i>	?
	Future modality:	<i>Must she (not) have</i>		<i>thought of it</i>	?
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Had she (not)</i>	}	<i>said it</i>	?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would she (not) have</i>		<i>talked about it</i>	?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should she (not) have</i>		<i>looked at it</i>	?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could she (not) have</i>		<i>worked on it</i>	?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might she (not) have</i>		<i>achieved it</i>	?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought she (not) have</i>			

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Has she done it?", "Has she not done it?", "Will she have done it?", "Will she not have done it?", "Shall she have done it?", "Shall she not have done it?", "Can she have done it?", "Can she not have done it?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Has she made it?", "Has she not made it?", "Will she have made it?", "Will she not have made it?", "Shall she have made it?", "Shall she not have made it?", and so on.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, she has done it!", "No, she has not done it!", "Yes, she will have done it!", "No, she will not have done it!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is no Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What has he</i>	}	<i>done</i>	?
<i>What will he have</i>		<i>made</i>	?
<i>What shall he have</i>		<i>got</i>	?
<i>What can he have</i>		<i>put there</i>	?
<i>What may he have</i>		<i>performed</i>	?
<i>What must he have</i>		<i>thought</i>	?
<i>What had he</i>		<i>said</i>	?
<i>What would he have</i>		<i>talked about</i>	?
<i>What should he have</i>		<i>looked like</i>	?
<i>What could he have</i>		<i>worked on</i>	?
<i>What might he have</i>		<i>achieved</i>	?
<i>What ought he have</i>			

Task: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is she doing?" Then give any possible answer like: "She is working!", "She is not working!"; "What will she be doing?" Answer: "She will be working!", "She will not be working!", and so on.

Mind: We cannot use "when" with Perfect tenses. We must use "since when" because the Perfect tenses generally refer to some point in the past.

"How" asks for the manner. Other words may be "in what way?", "in what manner?" or "by what mean?":

<i>How has he</i>	}	<i>done it</i>	?
<i>How will he have</i>		<i>made it</i>	?
<i>How shall he have</i>		<i>got it</i>	?
<i>How can he have</i>		<i>put it there</i>	?
<i>How may he have</i>		<i>performed it</i>	?
<i>How must he have</i>		<i>thought of it</i>	?
<i>How had he</i>		<i>said it</i>	?
<i>How would he have</i>		<i>talked about it</i>	?
<i>How should he have</i>		<i>looked at it</i>	?
<i>How could he have</i>		<i>worked on it</i>	?
<i>How might he have</i>		<i>achieved it</i>	?
<i>How ought he have</i>			

Just like in the other tenses, In Continuous Tenses we can use "**often, many times, long, fast, quickly**". Mind, "How often has done she it" means "How many times has she done it? The Question "How has she often done it? means "In what way has she often done it?"

<i>How often has he</i>	}	<i>done it</i>	?
<i>How often will he have</i>		<i>made it</i>	?
<i>How often shall he have</i>		<i>got it</i>	?
<i>How often can he have</i>		<i>put it there</i>	?
<i>How often may he have</i>		<i>performed it</i>	?
<i>How often must he have</i>		<i>thought of it</i>	?
<i>How often had he</i>		<i>said it</i>	?
<i>How often would he have</i>		<i>talked about it</i>	?
<i>How often should he have</i>		<i>looked at it</i>	?
<i>How often could he have</i>		<i>worked on it</i>	?
<i>How often might he have</i>		<i>achieved it</i>	?
<i>How often ought he have</i>			

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Just like in the other tenses, we can use other Question words, such as "for whom" or "with whom":

<i>For whom has he</i>	done it	?
<i>For whom will he have</i>	made it	?
<i>For whom shall he have</i>	got it	?
<i>For whom can he have</i>	put it there	?
<i>For whom may he have</i>	performed it	?
<i>For whom must he have</i>	thought of it	?
<i>For whom had he</i>	said it	?
<i>For whom would he have</i>	talked about it	?
<i>For whom should he have</i>	looked at it	?
<i>For whom could he have</i>	worked on it	?
<i>For whom might he have</i>	achieved it	?
<i>For whom ought he have</i>		

The same Question can, instead with "where", also be built with "why", "since when", or other Question words:

<i>Where has he</i>	done it	?
<i>Where will he have</i>	made it	?
<i>Where shall he have</i>	got it	?
<i>Where can he have</i>	put it there	?
<i>Where may he have</i>	performed it	?
<i>Where must he have</i>	thought of it	?
<i>Where had he</i>	said it	?
<i>Where would he have</i>	talked about it	?
<i>Where should he have</i>	looked at it	?
<i>Where could he have</i>	worked on it	?
<i>Where might he have</i>	achieved it	?
<i>Where ought he have</i>		

Task: Please, do the practice again but this time with other words: "What has he taken?", "What has he not taken?", "What has he chosen?", and so on:

<i>What has he (not)</i>	taken	?
<i>What will he (not) have</i>	chosen	?
<i>What shall he (not) have</i>	given me	?
<i>What can he (not) have</i>	shown us	?
<i>What may he (not) have</i>	meant	?
<i>What must he (not) have</i>	bought	?
<i>What had he (not)</i>	wanted	?
<i>What would he (not) have</i>	liked	?
<i>What should he (not) have</i>	considered	?
<i>What could he (not) have</i>	preferred	?
<i>What might he (not) have</i>	supported	?
<i>What ought he (not) have</i>		

The next questions have an extended complement or Object:

<i>Why has he (not)</i>	taken it away	?
<i>Why will he (not) have</i>	chosen it	?
<i>Why shall he (not) have</i>	given it to me	?
<i>Why can he (not) have</i>	shown it to us	?
<i>Why may he (not) have</i>	asked for it	?
<i>Why must he (not) have</i>	bought it	?
<i>Why had he (not)</i>	hired it	?
<i>Why would he (not) have</i>	sent it to them	?
<i>Why should he (not) have</i>	changed it	?
<i>Why could he (not) have</i>	mentioned it	?
<i>Why might he (not) have</i>	written it	?
<i>Why ought he (not) have</i>		

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 4

PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSES 完成进行的时态, **Active Voice** 主动语态

Keep in mind: When there is a Perfect Tense there must be a Perfect Continuous Tense too. Practising Questions in any Perfect Continuous Tense is also easy with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables. Let us practise the following Rotation Table with the Subject "she" and the Object "it":

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has she (not)</i>	} been	<i>doing it</i>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Will she (not) have</i>		<i>making it</i>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Shall she (not) have</i>		<i>getting it</i>	?
	Future modality:	<i>Can she (not) have</i>		<i>putting it there</i>	?
	Future modality:	<i>May she (not) have</i>		<i>performing it</i>	?
	Future modality:	<i>Must she (not) have</i>		<i>thinking of it</i>	?
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Had she (not)</i>		<i>saying it</i>	?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would she (not) have</i>		<i>talking about it</i>	?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should she (not) have</i>		<i>looking at it</i>	?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could she (not) have</i>		<i>working on it</i>	?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might she (not) have</i>		<i>achieving it</i>	?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought she (not) have</i>			

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Has she been doing it?", "Has she not been doing it?", "Will she have been doing it?", "Will she not have been doing it?", "Shall she have been doing it?", "Shall she not have been doing it?", "Can she have been doing it?", "Can she not have been doing it?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Has she been making it?", "Has she not been making it?", "Will she have been making it?", "Will she not have been making it?", "Shall she have been making it?", "Shall she not h ...?", and so on.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, she has been doing it!", "No, she has not been doing it!", "Yes, she will have been doing it!", "No, she will not have been doing it!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is no Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What has she (not)</i>	} been	<i>doing</i>	?
<i>What will she (not) have</i>		<i>making</i>	?
<i>What shall she (not) have</i>		<i>getting</i>	?
<i>What can she (not) have</i>		<i>putting there</i>	?
<i>What may she (not) have</i>		<i>performing</i>	?
<i>What must she (not) have</i>		<i>thinking of</i>	?
<i>What had she (not)</i>		<i>saying</i>	?
<i>What would she (not) have</i>		<i>talking about</i>	?
<i>What should she (not) have</i>		<i>looking at</i>	?
<i>What could she (not) have</i>		<i>working on</i>	?
<i>What might she (not) have</i>		<i>achieving</i>	?
<i>What ought she (not) have</i>			

Task Number 3: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is she doing?" Then give any possible answer like: "She is working!", "She is not working!"; "What will she be doing?" Answer: "She will be working!", "She will not be working!", and so on.

Mind: We cannot use "when" with Perfect tenses. We must use "since when" because the Perfect tenses generally refer to some point in the past.

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With "why" we ask for a reason. Alternatively we could ask with "for what" or "for what reason" or "on what grounds". Practise that.

<i>Why has she (not)</i>	} been	doing it	?
<i>Why will she (not) have</i>		making it	?
<i>Why shall she (not) have</i>		getting it	?
<i>Why can she (not) have</i>		putting it there	?
<i>Why may she (not) have</i>		performing it	?
<i>Why must she (not) have</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>Why had she (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>Why would she (not) have</i>		talking about it	?
<i>Why should she (not) have</i>		looking at it	?
<i>Why could she (not) have</i>		working on it	?
<i>Why might she (not) have</i>		achieving it	?
<i>Why ought she (not) have</i>			

Just like in the other tenses, we can use other Question words, such as "for whom" or "with whom":

<i>For whom has she (not)</i>	} been	doing it	?
<i>For whom will she (not) have</i>		making it	?
<i>For whom shall she (not) have</i>		getting it	?
<i>For whom can she (not) have</i>		putting it there	?
<i>For whom may she (not) have</i>		performing it	?
<i>For whom must she (not) have</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>For whom had she (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>For whom would she (not) have</i>		talking about it	?
<i>For whom should she (not) have</i>		looking at it	?
<i>For whom could she (not) have</i>		working on it	?
<i>For whom might she (not) have</i>		achieving it	?
<i>For whom ought she (not) have</i>			

The Perfect tenses do not follow "when" but "since when" because the begin of an action in Perfect refers to some time in the past.

<i>Since when has she</i>	} been	doing it	?
<i>Since when will she have</i>		making it	?
<i>Since when shall she have</i>		getting it	?
<i>Since when can she have</i>		putting it there	?
<i>Since when may she have</i>		performing it	?
<i>Since when must she have</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>Since when had she</i>		saying it	?
<i>Since when would she have</i>		talking about it	?
<i>Since when should she have</i>		looking at it	?
<i>Since when could she have</i>		working on it	?
<i>Since when might she have</i>		achieving it	?
<i>Since when ought she have</i>			

The same Question can, instead with "where", also be built with "how", how often", "in what manner", or other Question words:

<i>Where has she (not)</i>	} been	doing it	?
<i>Where will she (not) have</i>		making it	?
<i>Where shall she (not) have</i>		getting it	?
<i>Where can she (not) have</i>		putting it there	?
<i>Where may she (not) have</i>		performing it	?
<i>Where must she (not) have</i>		thinking of it	?
<i>Where had she (not)</i>		saying it	?
<i>Where would she (not) have</i>		talking about it	?
<i>Where should she (not) have</i>		looking at it	?
<i>Where could she (not) have</i>		working on it	?
<i>Where might she (not) have</i>		achieving it	?
<i>Where ought she (not) have</i>			

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 5
SIMPLE TENSES 基础时态, Passive Voice 被动语态

Practising Questions with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables really can improve your ability to build sentences. We see the Verb tense part with the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs, and in the box we can see 11 examples of the second half of the sentence. Each of them can be used with any of the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. 12 times 11, that is 264 Questions in each little table! First, we shall practise the following Rotation Table which contains the Subject "it". (In the Passive Voice we can hide any origin of an action. But if we mention an "acting part", it begins with "by"):

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Is it (not)</i>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>done made cleaned tidied up performed mended said shown changed improved achieved</i> </div>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Will it (not) be</i>		?
	Future tense:	<i>Shall it (not) be</i>		?
	Future modality:	<i>Can it (not) be</i>		?
	Future modality:	<i>May it (not) be</i>		?
	Future modality:	<i>Must it (not) be</i>		?
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Was it (not)</i>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>done made cleaned tidied up performed mended said shown changed improved achieved</i> </div>	?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would it (not) be</i>		?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should it (not) be</i>		?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could it (not) be</i>		?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might it (not) be</i>		?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought it (not) be</i>		?

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Is it done?", "Is it not done?", "Will it be done?", "Will it not be done?", "Shall it be done?", "Shall it not be done?", "Can it be done?", "Can it not be done?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Is it made?", "Is it not made?", "Will it be made?", "Will it not be made?", "Shall it be made?", and so on.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, it is done!", "No, it is not done!", "Yes, it will be done!", "No, it will not be done!", "Yes, it shall be done!", "No, it shall not be done!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is no Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What is (not)</i>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>done made cleaned tidied up performed mended said shown changed improved achieved</i> </div>	?
<i>What will (not) be</i>		?
<i>What shall (not) be</i>		?
<i>What can (not) be</i>		?
<i>What may (not) be</i>		?
<i>What must (not) be</i>		?
<i>What was (not)</i>		?
<i>What would (not) be</i>		?
<i>What should (not) be</i>		?
<i>What could (not) be</i>		?
<i>What might (not) be</i>		?
<i>What ought (not) be</i>		?

Task: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is done?" Then give any possible answer like: "The work is done!", "The work is not done!"; "What will be done?" Answer: "The work will be done!", "The work will not be done!", and so on.

Information: The Simple Tenses are most frequently used as they cover about 70% of all conversations and texts.

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As in Passive the creator of an action or decision is deliberately hidden, the most obvious and most important question might be:

<i>By whom is it (not)</i>	}	done	?
<i>By whom will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>By whom shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>By whom can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>By whom may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>By whom must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>By whom was it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>By whom would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>By whom should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>By whom could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>By whom might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>By whom ought it (not) be</i>			

With "for whom" we ask for the Object of our aim. It also could be expressed with "for what / which person"

<i>For whom is it (not)</i>	}	done	?
<i>For whom will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>For whom shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>For whom can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>For whom may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>For whom must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>For whom was it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>For whom would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>For whom should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>For whom could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>For whom might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>For whom ought it (not) be</i>			

Instead of "with whom, we could ask "with what / which person"

<i>With whom is it (not)</i>	}	done	?
<i>With whom will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>With whom shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>With whom can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>With whom may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>With whom must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>With whom was it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>With whom would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>With whom should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>With whom could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>With whom might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>With whom ought it (not) be</i>			

Just like in the other tenses, In Continuous Tenses we can use "**often, many times, long, fast, quickly**". Mind, "How often has done she it" means "How many times has she done it? The Question "How has she often done it? means "In what way has she often done it?"

<i>How often is it (not)</i>	}	done	?
<i>How often will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>How often shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>How often can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>How often may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>How often must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>How often was it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>How often would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>How often should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>How often could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>How often might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>How often ought it (not) be</i>			

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With "when" we ask for a certain time. We also could ask "at what time?" or "in what time?"

<i>When is it</i>	}	done	?
<i>When will it be</i>		made	?
<i>When shall it be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>When can it be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>When may it be</i>		performed	?
<i>When must it be</i>		mended	?
<i>When was it</i>		said	?
<i>When would it be</i>		shown	?
<i>When should it be</i>		changed	?
<i>When could it be</i>		improved	?
<i>When might it be</i>		achieved	?
<i>When ought it be</i>			

With "where" we ask for a certain place. So we also can ask "at what place?" or "in what place?"

<i>Where is it</i>	}	done	?
<i>Where will it be</i>		made	?
<i>Where shall it be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>Where can it be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>Where may it be</i>		performed	?
<i>Where must it be</i>		mended	?
<i>Where was it</i>		said	?
<i>Where would it be</i>		shown	?
<i>Where should it be</i>		changed	?
<i>Where could it be</i>		improved	?
<i>Where might it be</i>		achieved	?
<i>Where ought it be</i>			

With "how" we ask for a certain way of doing something. We also can say "in what way?" or "by what / which means?"

<i>How is it (not)</i>	}	done	?
<i>How will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>How shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>How can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>How may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>How must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>How was it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>How would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>How should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>How could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>How might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>How ought it (not) be</i>			

We can ask for the duration of an action by asking "for how long" or "in how much time".

<i>For how long is it (not)</i>	}	done	?
<i>For how long will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>For how long shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>For how long can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>For how long may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>For how long must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>For how long was it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>For how long would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>For how long should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>For how long could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>For how long might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>For how long ought it (not) be</i>			

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 6

SIMPLE CONTINUOUS TENSES 基础进行的时态, **Passive Voice** 被动语态

Practising Questions with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables really can improve your ability to build sentences. We see the Verb tense part with the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs, and in the box we can see 11 examples of the second half of the sentence. Each of them can be used with any of the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. 12 times 11, that is 264 Questions in each little table! First, we shall practise the following Rotation Table which contains the Subject "it". (In the Passive Voice we can hide any origin of an action. But if we mention an "acting part", it begins with "by"):

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Is it (not)</i>	} being	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>done</i> <i>made</i> <i>cleaned</i> <i>tidied up</i> <i>performed</i> <i>mended</i> <i>said</i> <i>shown</i> <i>changed</i> <i>improved</i> <i>achieved</i> </div>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Will it (not) be</i>			?
	Future tense:	<i>Shall it (not) be</i>			?
	Future modality:	<i>Can it (not) be</i>			?
	Future modality:	<i>May it (not) be</i>			?
	Future modality:	<i>Must it (not) be</i>			?
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Was it (not)</i>			?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would it (not) be</i>			?
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should it (not) be</i>			?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could it (not) be</i>			?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might it (not) be</i>			?
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought it (not) be</i>			?

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Is it done?", "Is it not done?", "Will it be done?", "Will it not be done?", "Shall it be done?", "Shall it not be done?", "Can it be done?", "Can it not be done?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Is it made?", "Is it not made?", "Will it be made?", "Will it not be made?", "Shall it be made?", and so on.

Task Number 2: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, it is done!", "No, it is not done!", "Yes, it will be done!", "No, it will not be done!", "Yes, it shall be done!", "No, it shall not be done!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is no Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What is (not)</i>	} being	<i>done</i>	?
<i>What will (not) be</i>		<i>made</i>	?
<i>What shall (not) be</i>		<i>cleaned</i>	?
<i>What can (not) be</i>		<i>tidied up</i>	?
<i>What may (not) be</i>		<i>performed</i>	?
<i>What must (not) be</i>		<i>mended</i>	?
<i>What was (not)</i>		<i>said</i>	?
<i>What would (not) be</i>		<i>shown</i>	?
<i>What should (not) be</i>		<i>changed</i>	?
<i>What could (not) be</i>		<i>improved</i>	?
<i>What might (not) be</i>		<i>achieved</i>	?
<i>What ought (not) be</i>			

Task Number 3: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is done?" Then give any possible answer like: "The work is done!", "The work is not done!"; "What will be done?" Answer: "The work will be done!", "The work will not be done!", and so on.

Clue: You might get poor answers quite simply because the asked person does not want to give you a *good answer!*

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

As in Passive the creator of an action or decision is deliberately hidden, the most obvious and most important question might be:

<i>By whom is it (not) be</i>	} being	done	?
<i>By whom will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>By whom shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>By whom can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>By whom may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>By whom must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>By whom was it (not) be</i>		said	?
<i>By whom would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>By whom should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>By whom could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>By whom might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>By whom ought it (not) be</i>			

We can change the Question Word to other Question Words, for example to "**for whom**" or "**with whom**". **Extra Task:** Change the Subject "he" for "Francis" or "my friend", etc.:

<i>For whom is it (not) be</i>	} being	done	?
<i>For whom will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>For whom shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>For whom can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>For whom may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>For whom must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>For whom was it (not) be</i>		said	?
<i>For whom would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>For whom should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>For whom could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>For whom might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>For whom ought it (not) be</i>			

Just as in the Active Voice, we can ask for the frequency of an action by using "how often" or "how frequently":

<i>How often is it (not) be</i>	} being	done	?
<i>How often will it (not) be</i>		made	?
<i>How often shall it (not) be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>How often can it (not) be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>How often may it (not) be</i>		performed	?
<i>How often must it (not) be</i>		mended	?
<i>How often was it (not) be</i>		said	?
<i>How often would it (not) be</i>		shown	?
<i>How often should it (not) be</i>		changed	?
<i>How often could it (not) be</i>		improved	?
<i>How often might it (not) be</i>		achieved	?
<i>How often ought it (not) be</i>			

The question word "when" can be replaced by "at what time?" or "at which time?" or "in what / which time?":

<i>When is it</i>	} being	done	?
<i>When will it be</i>		made	?
<i>When shall it be</i>		cleaned	?
<i>When can it be</i>		tidied up	?
<i>When may it be</i>		performed	?
<i>When must it be</i>		mended	?
<i>When was it</i>		said	?
<i>When would it be</i>		shown	?
<i>When should it be</i>		changed	?
<i>When could it be</i>		improved	?
<i>When might it be</i>		achieved	?
<i>When ought it be</i>			

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

The word "where" always can be replaced by "at what / which place?" or "in what / which location?"

<i>Where is it</i>	}	being	done	?
<i>Where will it be</i>			made	?
<i>Where shall it be</i>			cleaned	?
<i>Where can it be</i>			tidied up	?
<i>Where may it be</i>			performed	?
<i>Where must it be</i>			mended	?
<i>Where was it</i>			said	?
<i>Where would it be</i>			shown	?
<i>Where should it be</i>			changed	?
<i>Where could it be</i>			improved	?
<i>Where might it be</i>			achieved	?
<i>Where ought it be</i>				

"In what / which way?" or "by what / which means?" is another phrase to express the question word "how":

<i>How is it (not)</i>	}	being	done	?
<i>How will it (not) be</i>			made	?
<i>How shall it (not) be</i>			cleaned	?
<i>How can it (not) be</i>			tidied up	?
<i>How may it (not) be</i>			performed	?
<i>How must it (not) be</i>			mended	?
<i>How was it (not)</i>			said	?
<i>How would it (not) be</i>			shown	?
<i>How should it (not) be</i>			changed	?
<i>How could it (not) be</i>			improved	?
<i>How might it (not) be</i>			achieved	?
<i>How ought it (not) be</i>				

The question word "why" stands for "for what reason?" or "on what grounds?"

<i>Why is it (not)</i>	}	being	done	?
<i>Why will it (not) be</i>			made	?
<i>Why shall it (not) be</i>			cleaned	?
<i>Why can it (not) be</i>			tidied up	?
<i>Why may it (not) be</i>			performed	?
<i>Why must it (not) be</i>			mended	?
<i>Why was it (not)</i>			said	?
<i>Why would it (not) be</i>			shown	?
<i>Why should it (not) be</i>			changed	?
<i>Why could it (not) be</i>			improved	?
<i>Why might it (not) be</i>			achieved	?
<i>Why ought it (not) be</i>				

Asking for the duration of an action is the most common kind of question. We can also say "in how much time?":

<i>For how long is it (not)</i>	}	being	done	?
<i>For how long will it (not) be</i>			made	?
<i>For how long shall it (not) be</i>			cleaned	?
<i>For how long can it (not) be</i>			tidied up	?
<i>For how long may it (not) be</i>			performed	?
<i>For how long must it (not) be</i>			mended	?
<i>For how long was it (not)</i>			said	?
<i>For how long would it (not) be</i>			shown	?
<i>For how long should it (not) be</i>			changed	?
<i>For how long could it (not) be</i>			improved	?
<i>For how long might it (not) be</i>			achieved	?
<i>For how long ought it (not) be</i>				

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 7

PERFECT TENSES 完成时态, Passive Voice 被动语态

Practising Questions with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables really can improve your ability to build sentences. We see the Verb tense part with the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs, and in the box we can see 11 examples of the second half of the sentence. Each of them can be used with any of the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. 12 times 11, that is 264 Questions in each little table! First, we shall practise the following Rotation Table which contains the Subject "it". (In the Passive Voice we can hide any origin of an action. But if we mention an "acting part", it begins with "by"):

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	<i>Has it (not)</i>	} been	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">done made cleaned tidied up performed mended said shown changed improved achieved</div>	?
	Future tense:	<i>Will it (not) have</i>			
	Future tense:	<i>Shall it (not) have</i>			
	Future modality:	<i>Can it (not) have</i>			
	Future modality:	<i>May it (not) have</i>			
	Future modality:	<i>Must it (not) have</i>			
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	<i>Had it (not)</i>			
	Past Future tense:	<i>Would it (not) have</i>			
	Past Future tense:	<i>Should it (not) have</i>			
	Past Future modality:	<i>Could it (not) have</i>			
	Past Future modality:	<i>Might it (not) have</i>			
	Past Future modality:	<i>Ought it (not) have</i>			

Task Number 1: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Is it done?", "Is it not done?", "Will it be done?", "Will it not be done?", "Shall it be done?", "Shall it not be done?", "Can it be done?", "Can it not be done?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Is it made?", "Is it not made?", "Will it be made?", "Will it not be made?", "Shall it be made?", and so on.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, it is done!", "No, it is not done!", "Yes, it will be done!", "No, it will not be done!", "Yes, it shall be done!", "No, it shall not be done!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is no Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

<i>What has (not)</i>	} been	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">done</div>	?
<i>What will (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">made</div>	?
<i>What shall (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">cleaned</div>	?
<i>What can (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">tidied up</div>	?
<i>What may (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">performed</div>	?
<i>What must (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">mended</div>	?
<i>What had (not)</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">said</div>	?
<i>What would (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">shown</div>	?
<i>What should (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">changed</div>	?
<i>What could (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">improved</div>	?
<i>What might (not) have</i>		<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">achieved</div>	?
<i>What ought (not) have</i>			

Task: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is done?" Then give any possible answer like: "The work is done!", "The work is not done!"; "What will be done?" Answer: "The work will be done!", "The work will not be done!", and so on.

Mind: We cannot use "when" with Perfect tenses. We must use "since when" because the Perfect tenses generally refer to some "beginning point" in the past: Since when has / had he done it?

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

As in Passive the creator of an action or decision is deliberately hidden, the most obvious and most important question might be:

<i>By whom has it (not)</i>	} been	done	?
<i>By whom will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>By whom shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>By whom can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>By whom may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>By whom must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>By whom had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>By whom would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>By whom should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>By whom could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>By whom might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>By whom ought it (not) have</i>			

The question word "why" stands for "for what reason?" or "on what grounds?"

<i>Why has it (not)</i>	} been	done	?
<i>Why will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>Why shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>Why can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>Why may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>Why must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>Why had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>Why would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>Why should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>Why could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>Why might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>Why ought it (not) have</i>			

The word "where" always can be replaced by "at what / which place" or "in what / which location"?

<i>Where has it (not)</i>	} been	done	?
<i>Where will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>Where shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>Where can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>Where may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>Where must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>Where had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>Where would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>Where should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>Where could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>Where might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>Where ought it (not) have</i>			

"In what / which way?" or "by what / which means?" is another phrase to express the question word "how":

<i>How has it (not)</i>	} been	done	?
<i>How will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>How shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>How can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>How may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>How must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>How had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>How would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>How should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>How could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>How might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>How ought it (not) have</i>			

Rotation Tables, Pattern No. 8

PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSES 完成进行的时态, **Passive Voice** 被动语态

Practising Questions with Lord Henfield's Rotation Tables really can improve your ability to build sentences. We see the Verb tense part with the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs, and in the box we can see 11 examples of the second half of the sentence. Each of them can be used with any of the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. 12 times 11, that is 264 Questions in each little table! First, we shall practise the following Rotation Table which contains the Subject "it". (In the Passive Voice we can hide any origin of an action. But if we mention an "acting part", it begins with "by"):

Present Tense Group:	Present tense:	Has it (not)	} been being	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;"> <i>done</i> <i>made</i> <i>cleaned</i> <i>tidied up</i> <i>performed</i> <i>mended</i> <i>said</i> <i>shown</i> <i>changed</i> <i>improved</i> <i>achieved</i> </div>	?
	Future tense:	Will it (not) have			?
	Future tense:	Shall it (not) have			?
	Future modality:	Can it (not) have			?
	Future modality:	May it (not) have			?
	Future modality:	Must it (not) have			?
Past Tense Group:	Past tense:	Had it (not)			?
	Past Future tense:	Would it (not) have			?
	Past Future tense:	Should it (not) have			?
	Past Future modality:	Could it (not) have			?
	Past Future modality:	Might it (not) have			?
	Past Future modality:	Ought it (not) have			?

Task: Please, speak all 264 possible Questions like this: "Is it done?", "Is it not done?", "Will it be done?", "Will it not be done?", "Shall it be done?", "Shall it not be done?", "Can it be done?", "Can it not be done?", and so on, Then use the second sentence in the box: "Is it made?", "Is it not made?", "Will it be made?", "Will it not be made?", "Shall it be made?", and so on.

Task: Please, change all those Questions into correct answers like this: "Yes, it is done!", "No, it is not done!", "Yes, it will be done!", "No, it will not be done!", "Yes, it shall be done!", "No, it shall not be done!", and so on.

The following Rotation Table contains the Question word "what" before the 12 Helper and Modal Verbs. Mind: In Questions with "what" is no Object because "what" asks for the Object! The so-called predicate of the sentence is only represented by the Verb in the box itself (often with direction or time words attached to it):

What has (not)	} been being	<i>done</i>	?
What will (not) have		<i>made</i>	?
What shall (not) have		<i>cleaned</i>	?
What can (not) have		<i>tidied up</i>	?
What may (not) have		<i>performed</i>	?
What must (not) have		<i>mended</i>	?
What had (not)		<i>said</i>	?
What would (not) have		<i>shown</i>	?
What should (not) have		<i>changed</i>	?
What could (not) have		<i>improved</i>	?
What might (not) have		<i>achieved</i>	?
What ought (not) have			?

Task: Please, speak all 264 Questions as you did before. "What is done?" Then give any possible answer like: "The work is done!", "The work is not done!"; "What will be done?" Answer: "The work will be done!", "The work will not be done!", and so on.

Mind: We cannot use "when" with Perfect tenses. We must use "since when" because the Perfect tenses generally refer to some point in the past.

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

As in Passive the creator of an action or decision is deliberately hidden, the most obvious and most important question might be:

<i>By whom has it (not)</i>	been being	done	?
<i>By whom will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>By whom shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>By whom can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>By whom may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>By whom must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>By whom had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>By whom would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>By whom should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>By whom could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>By whom might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>By whom ought it (not) have</i>			

The question word "why" stands for "for what reason?" or "on what grounds?"

<i>Why has it (not)</i>	been being	done	?
<i>Why will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>Why shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>Why can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>Why may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>Why must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>Why had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>Why would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>Why should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>Why could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>Why might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>Why ought it (not) have</i>			

The word "where" always can be replaced by "at what / which place" or "in what / which location"?

<i>Where has it (not)</i>	been being	done	?
<i>Where will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>Where shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>Where can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>Where may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>Where must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>Where had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>Where would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>Where should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>Where could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>Where might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>Where ought it (not) have</i>			

"In what / which way?" or "by what / which means?" is another phrase to express the question word "how":

<i>How has it (not)</i>	been being	done	?
<i>How will it (not) have</i>		made	?
<i>How shall it (not) have</i>		cleaned	?
<i>How can it (not) have</i>		tidied up	?
<i>How may it (not) have</i>		performed	?
<i>How must it (not) have</i>		mended	?
<i>How had it (not)</i>		said	?
<i>How would it (not) have</i>		shown	?
<i>How should it (not) have</i>		changed	?
<i>How could it (not) have</i>		improved	?
<i>How might it (not) have</i>		achieved	?
<i>How ought it (not) have</i>			

DISTINGUISHING HUMANS AND ANIMALS:

Sir! Madam! Miss! Mr Brown, Mrs Brown;
Ms Brown, Miss Brown (!);
my Lord! my Lady! your Lordship! your Ladyship!;
Lord Henfield, Lady Henfield.

man (men), woman (women); male, female, infant;
masculine, feminine, neuter;
Gentlemen (Gents), Ladies;
father, mother, child; brother, sister, son, daughter,
lion, lionness, tiger, tigres; fox, vixen, cock, hen,
bull, cow; stallion, mare; actor, actress,
prince, princess, king, queen, emperor, empress.

male driver, female driver; male nurse; female doctor
woman prime minister, lady politician;
male elephant, female elephant, infant elephant;
a group of elephants; he-wolf, she wolf;

a / the one / two / three / four;
the first, the second, the third, the fourth, the fifth;
the one hundredth, the one before last, the last;

THE MOST IMPORTANT ADJECTIVES:

able, acid, angry, automatic, awake, bad, beautiful, bent, big,
bitter, black, blue, blunt, boiling, bright, broken, brown,
certain, cheap, chemical, chief, clean, clear, cold, common,
complete, complex, conscious, cruel, cut, dark, dead, dear, deep,
delicate, dependent, different, dirty, dry, early, elastic, electric,
equal, false, fat, feeble, female, fertile, first, fixed, flat, foolish,
free, frequent, full, future, general, good, great, green, grey,
hanging, happy, hard, healthy, heavy, high, hollow, ill, impor-
tant, kind, last, late, left, like, living, long, loose, loud, low,
male, married, material, medical, military, mixed, narrow,
natural, necessary, negative, new, normal, old, open, opposite,
parallel, past, physical, political, poor, positive, possible,
present, private, probable, public, quick, quiet, ready, red,
regular, responsible, right, rough, round, sad, safe, same,
second, secret, separate, serious, sharp, short, shut, simple,
slow, small, smooth, soft, solid, special, sticky, stiff, straight,
strange, strong, sudden, sweet, tall, thick, thin, tight, tired,
true, use, value, view, violent, voice, waiting, warm, weight,
wet, white, wide, word, work, wound, wrong, yellow, young.

NOMEN

that is

The Noun

and its describing words

a, an, the, no; any, some;
that, those, this, these.

my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their;
(of) mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

all, any, anyone, anybody, anything,
every, everyone, everybody, everything,
none, no one, nobody, nothing, other,
some, someone, somebody, something, such.

that, which, who, whom, whose.

much; more (than), (the) most;
little; less (than), (the) least,
many; more (than), (the) most;
few; fewer (than), (the) fewest.

beautiful, more beautiful (than), (the) most beautiful;
not beautiful, less beautiful (than), (the) least beautiful;

(not) a piece of, a pile of, a heap of, a cup of, a box of,
(not) a group of, a mass of, a sum of, a part of, a section of;
(not) a unit of, a sort of, an area of, a gramme of, a number of;
(not) much, many, a lot of, plenty of, lots of, a few of, few of

the thinking, the thought, the thinker; thoughtless
the thank, the thanks; thankful, thankfulness,
thankless, thanklessly, thanlessness.

THE MOST IMPORTANT NOUNS FOR THINGS:

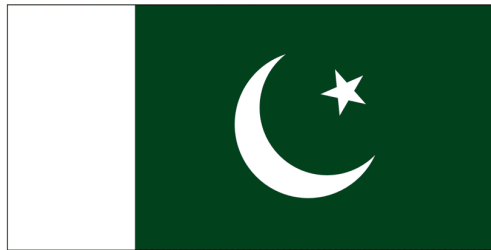
angle, ant, arch, arm, army, bag, ball, band, basin,
bath, bed, bee, bell, berry, bird, blade, board, boat,
bone, book, bottle, box, boy, brain, brake, brick, bridge,
brush, bulb, button, camera, card, carriage, cat, chain,
cheese, chest, chin, church, circle, clock, cloud, coat,
collar, cord, cup, dog, door, drain, dress, drop, ear, egg,
engine, eye, face, farm, finger, fish, flag, floor, fly, foot,
fork, frame, garden, girl, glove, goat, gun, hair, hammer,
hand, hat, head, heart, hook, hospital, house, island,
key, knee, knife, knot, leaf, leg, line, lip, lock, map,
match, moon, mouth, muscle, nail, neck, needle, nerve,
net, nose, nut, office, orange, oven, parcel, pen, pencil,
picture, pig, pin, pipe, plane, plate, plough, pocket, pot,
potato, prison, pump, rail, rat, receipt, ring, roof, root,
sail, school, scissors, screw, seed, sheep, shelf, ship,
shirt, shoe, skin, skirt, snake, sock, spade, spoon, spring,
square, stamp, star, station, stem, stick, stomach, store,
street, sun, table, tail, thread, throat, ticket, toe, tongue,
tooth, town, train, tray, tree, trousers, umbrella, wall,
watch, wheel, whip, window, wing, wire, worm.

IMPORTANT INTELLECTUAL NOUNS:

act, addition, adjustment, agreement, air, amount, animal,
answer, approval, art, attempt, authority, back, balance,
base, behaviour, belief, birth, bite, blood, body, breath,
building, burn, burst, business, care, cause, chalk, change,
cloth, coal, colour, company, comparison, condition,
connection, control, cook, copy, cough, country, cover,
crime, cry, current, curve, damage, danger, daughter, day,
death, debt, decision, degree, desire, destruction, direction,
discovery, distance, drink, earth, edge, end, error, existence,
fact, fall, family, fear, feeling, field, fight, fire, food, force,
friend, front, fruit, grip, group, guide, harbour, harmony,
hate, heat, help, hole, hope, ice, idea, ink, insect,
instrument, kick, kiss, knowledge, land, language, level,
lift, light, limit, list, look, loss, love, machine, mass, meat,
metal, middle, money, month, mountain, move, name,
need, owner, pain, paint, part, peace, person, place, plant,
pleasure, poison, polish, position, powder, power, price,
pull, punishment, purpose, push, rain, range, ray, reason,
rest, river, road, room, rule, run, salt, sex, shade, shake,
shame, shock, side, sign, smell, smile, smoke, sort, sound,
soup, space, stage, start, stop, structure, substance, sugar,
taste, test, thing, thought, time, top, tool, touch, view, walk
war, wash, water, way, vessel, wound, writing, year.



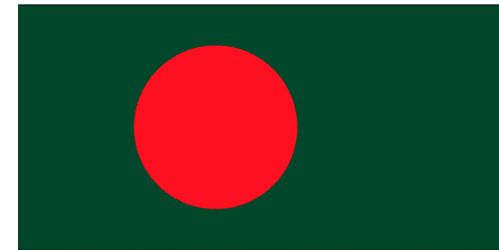
The Islamic Republic of Pakistan



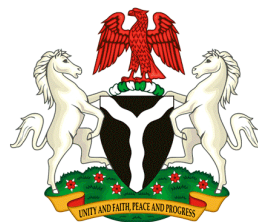
The Republic of India



The People's Republic of Bangladesh



The Republic of Ghana



The Federal Republic of Nigeria



The Republic of the Philippines



The here shown coat-of-arms and flags represent nations that use English as a unifying language. English plays here a significant role in business and education although there are few native English speakers.

ARTICLES AND OTHER DETERMINERS

Before we speak about the Noun itself, we have to pay attention to **Articles**, and **Determiners** that can substitute or replace Articles. An important role in English grammar is played by Determiners – words or phrases that precede a Noun or Noun phrase and serve to express its reference in the context. The term "Determiner" is very varied. Sometimes the term is not used at all, and the words classed here as Determiners are classed as Articles, Demonstratives, Adjectives, Possessives and Quantifiers. Let us begin with the Articles.

Some languages (for example: Russian, Chinese and Japanese) do not have *Articles*. When speakers of these languages are learning English, it is often difficult to explain to them what an Article is. Native English speakers use them automatically. An Article is a word that comes before a Noun. There are three kinds of Articles: **Definite Articles**, **Indefinite Articles** and **Negative Articles**:

	Definite	Indefinite	Negative
Singular	the	a / an / any	no
Plural	the	any / some	no

The watchful observer immediately may well have spotted that in Basic English also "no", "any" and "some" are considered as Articles. The traditional grammar books do not help much with their unsteady and awkward explanations as each of them classify certain words in a different way, and the main problem is that many students simply do not know what those word classes are used for and how.

Therefore, let me explain to you in a simple way what we have to deal with. Articles are usually characterised as either Definite or Indefinite, as Singular or Plural, and as Positive or Negative

In English there is just one **positive Definite Article**: "**the**". But the Article "the" (ðe) can be enunciated in two different ways: It regularly sounds like "ðe". And it sounds like "ði" before words that begin with a vowel AND before ANY word we wish to emphasise! Example: the (ði) car (meaning: **the** car that I see among all those others").

There are two forms of **positive Indefinite Article**: "**a**" and "**an**". The word "a" is used before any word beginning with a Consonant: a cat, a traveler, a house, but also before "a European" (Euro has a "Y" sound), or "a university". The word "an" is used before a word starting with a vowel sound: "an apple", "an orange", or "an elephant". Words that begin with "h" can either have "a" or "an" as article as some people speak the "h", others do not.

And there is only one **negative Article**: "**no**" as in "no car" or "no cars". With "no" we express the negative of each positive Article!

There is no **Indefinite Plural Article**, but it can be expressed with "**any**" in certain questions, and with "**some**" in the equivalent answers or statements.

Watch out: "*The*" can be used with both Singular and Plural Nouns, with Nouns of any gender, and with Nouns that start with any letter.

The Use of the Definite Article THE

In general: **"the"** in English is used for something we have already been talking about. The word **"a"** on the other hand is used when introducing a new idea: *"The tired woman was looking for her cat. Suddenly she saw **the cat** running up a tree".* (We were already talking about **the cat** in the first sentence and she knows that cat because it is her own cat, while **a tree** here represents a new idea). Now take a look at this sentence: *"The tired woman was walking along when she suddenly saw a cat running up a tree".* (This means, the woman neither had been thinking about cats nor trees until then!). Sometimes we do not need an Article, for example when talking about something in general. Compare: *"**The dogs** do not bite"* (meaning: dogs that you are thinking about). *"**Barking dogs** do not bite"* (*barking dogs* here means all dogs in general). The Definite Article is used to refer to a particular member of a group or class. It may be something that the speaker has already mentioned or it may be something uniquely specified: *"**The children** know the fastest way home".* The sentence above refers to specific children and a specific way home; it contrasts with the much more general observation that: *"**Children** know the fastest ways home".* The latter sentence refers to children in general and their specific ways home. Likewise, *"Give me **the book**".* refers to a specific book whose identity is known or obvious to the listener; as such it has a markedly different meaning from *"Give me **a book**".* which uses an Indefinite Article, which does not specify what book is to be given. The Definite Article can also be used in English to indicate a specific class among other classes: *"The cabbage white butterfly lays its eggs on members of **the Brassica** genus".*

The Use of the Indefinite Article A / AN (Singular)

An Indefinite Article indicates that its Noun is not a particular one identifiable to the listener. It may be something that the speaker is mentioning for the first time, or the speaker may be making a general statement about any such thing. **a / an** are the Indefinite Articles used in English. The form **"an"** is used before words that begin with a vowel sound (even if spelled with an initial Consonant, as in an hour), and **a** is used before words that begin with a Consonant sound (even if spelled with a vowel, as in **a European**): *She had a house so large that an elephant would get lost without a map.*

Before some words beginning with a pronounced (not silent) h in an unstressed first syllable, such as historic(al), hallucination, hilarious, horrendous, and horrific, some (especially older) British writers prefer to use **an** over **a** (an historical event, etc.). An is also preferred before **hotel** by some writers of British English (probably reflecting the relatively recent adoption of the word from French, in which the **h** is not pronounced). The use of "an" before words beginning with an unstressed "h" is generally more common in British English than in American. American writers normally use **a** in all these cases, although there are occasional uses of **an historic(al)** in American English. Unlike British English, American English typically uses **an** before **herb**, since the **h** in this word is silent for most Americans.

Using **"a"** before a word beginning with a vowel sound in unstressed syllables - such as "I left **a orange** on the table". - is not uncommon, but is universally considered non-standard.

Dialects and Historical Distinction between A and AN

Historically, there used to be a distinction between **a** and **an** analogous to that for the Possessive Adjectives **my** and **thy**, which was **mine** and **thine** before a vowel, as in "**mine** eyes" or "**mine** arm".

Nowadays, however, the form "a" is used when the next word begins with a **Consonant sound**. Examples: *a box*, *a car* or *a sip*. It is "a one-way ticket" (pronounced "a won wei tiket"); a unicorn (pronounced "a yoo-ni-korn"); The form "an" is used before words starting with a **Vowel sound**, regardless of whether or not the word begins with a Vowel letter. The article "an" is therefore also used before words that begin with a Consonant letter such as **SUV** (pronounced "es-yoo-veh"); an hour (the **h** is silent); **an heir** (pronounced "air").

Words that begin with "**h**" are treated very irregular according to where a speaker comes from. Some speakers and writers use "an" before a word beginning with the sound "h" in an unstressed syllable: "an historical novel", or "an hotel". When this is spoken, the "h" is not Pronounced so "an hotel", for example, sounds like "an 'otel". However, this usage is now less common, so "**an** herb" (where the h is silent), is more common in America and the West of the UK while "**a** herb" in the East and South of the UK but also in Australia and New Zealand. Some dialects, particularly in England (such as Cockney), silence many or all initial h sounds (h-dropping), and so employ "an" in situations where it would not be used in the standard language, like "an 'elmet" (standard English: a helmet).

The Use of the Indefinite Article ANY / SOME (Plural)

The word "**some**" is used as a functional Plural of **a** / **an** with Plural and Uncountable Nouns. For example, *Give me **some** apples*, *Give me **some** water*. In grammar, this "some" is not required; a Zero Article also would do: *Give me apples*, *Give me water*. The use of "some" in such cases implies a more limited quantity.. "An apple" never means more than one apple. "Give me some apples" indicates more than one is desired but without specifying a quantity. Surprisingly, "some" also serves as a Singular Indefinite Article, as in "There is some person in the garden".

Like the Articles "*the, a, an, no*", "**some**" belongs to the class of "Central Determiners", which means that we cannot use them together, so, "**the some boys**" is ungrammatical.

The contrasting use of "any" in negative clauses proves that "some" is polarity-sensitive, and occurs in positive clauses: "I have some objections to make", as against "I don't have any objections to make"; in negative clauses. Sentences such as "I have any objections to make" or "I do not have some objections to make" are ungrammatical.

Some can also have a more emphatic meaning: "some but not others" or "some but not many". Example, "Some people like football, while others prefer rugby", or "I have got some money, but not enough to lend you any". It can also be used as an Indefinite Pronoun, not qualifying a Noun at all (Give me some!) or followed by a prepositional phrase (I want some of your Vodka); the same applies to **any**.

The Use of the Negative Article NO

In English, the negative Article "no" tells us that the specific thing or idea, named by the Noun, is not available or existant, and can thus be regarded as neither Definite nor Indefinite. The word "no" is often considered to be a simple Determiner rather than an Article. It stands right before a Singular or Plural Noun or its preceding Adjective: *No dogs are allowed here. There is no food. We have no warm water.*

The Zero Article

The "Zero Article" is the absence of an Article. In English, the lack of an Article specifically indicates that the Noun is Indefinite. Both, the Zero Article and the Indefinite Plural Article "some" are used with Plurals and mass Nouns: *Visitors end up walking in mud. Some visitors end up walking in mud.* In the following tables, (any) or (some) could be omitted, but in fact, native speakers use them all the time.

Practise the use of Articles. Here are some simple sentences with a **Countable Noun** as Questions:

Singular	Plural
Can I see the car?	Can I see the cars?
Can I not see the car?	Can I not see the cars?
Can I see any car?	Can I see any cars?
Can I not see any car?	Can I not see (any) cars?
Can I see a car?	Can I see (some) cars?
Can I see no car?	Can I see no cars?

Exactly the same sentences as answers or statements:

Singular	Plural
I can see the car.	I can see the cars.
I cannot see the car.	I cannot see the cars.
I can see any car.	I can see any cars.
I cannot see any car.	I cannot see (any) cars.
I can see a car.	I can see (some) cars.
I can see no car.	I can see no cars.

The Article stands always before the Adjective + Noun. This is also the case when there are more than one Adjectives! Now I show you how the Questions look like with an Adjective before the Noun:

Singular	Plural
Can I see the blue car?	Can I see the blue cars?
Can I not see the blue car?	Can I not see the blue cars?
Can I see any blue car?	Can I see any blue cars?
Can I not see any blue car?	Can I not see (any) blue cars?
Can I see a blue car?	Can I see (some) blue cars?
Can I see no blue car?	Can I see no blue cars?

And here are the answers:

Singular	Plural
I can see the blue car.	I can see the blue cars.
I cannot see the blue car.	I cannot see the blue cars.
I can see any blue car.	I can see any blue cars.
I cannot see any blue car.	I cannot see (any) blue cars.
I can see a blue car.	I can see (some) blue cars.
I can see no blue car.	I can see no blue cars.

The Noun "car" is a countable Noun. It is pretty easy to deal with it. But how shall we treat an uncountable Noun such as "water"?

Uncountable Nouns have no Plural, quite simply because we cannot count them! And because we cannot count them, those Nouns are Indefinite themselves. So they do not need an Indefinite Article. What can we do? Answer: We must make such a Noun countable by giving it a Measure word. We can see here that the uncountable Noun "water" becomes countable by putting before it the Measure Word "bottle of". Almost all Measure words are countable, and so "water" also becomes countable. Here are some simple sentences as Questions:

Singular	Plural
Can I buy (the bottle of) water?	Can I buy (the bottles of) water?
Can I not buy (the bottle of) water?	Can I not buy (the bottles of) water?
Can I buy any (bottle of) water?	Can I buy any (bottles of) water?
Can I not buy (any bottle of) water?	Can I not buy (any) (bottles of) water?
Can I buy (a bottle of) water?	Can I buy (some) (bottles of) water?
Can I buy no (bottle of) water?	Can I buy no (bottles of) water?

Exactly the same sentences as answers or statements:

Singular	Plural
I can buy (the bottle of) water.	I can buy (the bottles of) water.
I cannot buy (the bottle of) water.	I cannot buy (the bottles of) water.
I can buy any (bottle of) water.	I can buy any (bottles of) water.
I cannot buy (any bottle of) water.	I cannot buy (any bottles of) water.
I can buy (a bottle of) water.	I can buy (some) (bottles of) water.
I can buy no (bottle of) water.	I can buy no (bottles of) water.

The Article stands always before the Adjective + Noun. This is also the case when there are more than one Adjectives! Now I show you how the Questions look like with an Adjective before the Noun:

And here are Questions with Adjectives:

Singular	Plural
Can I buy (the bottle of) warm water?	Can I buy (the bottles of) warm water?
Can I not buy . . .	Can I not buy . . .

Exactly the same sentences as answers or statements:

Singular	Plural
I can buy (the bottle of) water.	I can buy (the bottles of) water.
I cannot buy . . .	I cannot buy . . .

and so on!

Possessives

Instead of Articles or Determiners, we can use these Possessives: **my**, (thy), **his**, **her**, **its**, **our**, **your**, **their**; or we can use Genitive forms of Names or Nouns: **John's**, **Betty's**; **the garden's**, **the house's**

Questions look like with an Adjective before the Noun:

Singular	Plural
Can I see your blue car?	Can I see the blue cars?
Can I not see . . .	Can I not see . . .

And here are the answers:

Singular	Plural
I can see your blue car.	I can see the blue cars.
I cannot see . . .	I cannot see . . .

and so on!

Other Determiners

A Determiner is a word or phrase that occurs together with a Noun or Noun Phrase and serves to express the reference of that Noun or Noun Phrase in the context. So a Determiner may indicate whether the Noun is referring to a Definite or Indefinite element of a class, to a closer or more distant element, to an element belonging to a specified person or thing, to a particular number or quantity, etc. Common kinds of Determiners include Articles (just as seen before: *the*; *a*, *an*, *no*; *any*, *some*), Demonstratives (*this* and *that*) and *which*, Possessive Determiners (*my*, *whose* and *their*), and Quantifiers (*many*, *few* and *several*).

Instead of the above shown Articles, we can use the following Demonstrative Pronouns in the very same way:

	Definite	Indefinite	Negative
Singular	this / that	any / one	no
Plural	these / those	any / some	no

The following Determiners have to fit to a Countable or Uncountable Noun:

	Definite	Indefinite	Negative
Countable	few / many	several	no
Uncountable	little / much	any / some	no

The role of Determiner can also be played by Noun possessive forms such as *the station's*, *John's* and *the girl's*.

Various quantifying words like all, many, various, and number words (one, two, three; first, second, third, etc.) are also in use as Determiners, as well as Measure words or phrases such as *a couple of*).

The article "*the*" once was the unstressed Demonstrative Pronoun of the stressed forms *this - these*, *that - those*. This is the reason why "the" easily can be replaced by those stressed forms. Here as Questions:

Singular	Plural
Can I see <i>this</i> car?	Can I see <i>these</i> cars?
Can I not see <i>this</i> car?	Can I not see <i>these</i> cars?
Can I see <i>that</i> car?	Can I see <i>those</i> cars?
Can I not see <i>that</i> car?	Can I not see <i>those</i> cars?

Exactly the same sentences as answers or statements:

Singular	Plural
I can see <i>this</i> car.	I can see <i>these</i> cars.
I cannot see <i>this</i> car.	I cannot see <i>these</i> cars.
I can see <i>that</i> car.	I can see <i>those</i> cars.
I cannot see <i>that</i> car.	I cannot see <i>those</i> cars.

If we use one or more Adjectives, they come right before the Noun: this blue car, that big, blue car, those wonderful, big, blue cars, etc.

Articles and other Determiners - Details and Examples

Determiners (THE, MY, SOME, THIS)

Determiners are words such as *the, my, this, some, twenty, each, any*, which are used before Nouns:

the countryside	some paper	this old sofa
my father	five green chairs	each person

Determiners include the following common types:

Articles: *a / an, the, no*

Demonstratives: *this, that, these, those*

Possessives: *my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, 's* (as in Jim's)

Quantifiers: *(a) few, fewer, (a) little, many, much, more, most, some, any, etc.*

Numbers: *one, two, three, etc.; first, second, third, fourth etc.*

Here is a list of the determiners included in this book. Many of them have individual entries:

<i>(a) few, fewer, fewest</i>	<i>every</i>	<i>most</i>	<i>that</i>
<i>(a) little</i>	<i>half</i>	<i>much</i>	<i>the</i>
<i>(an) other</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>their</i>
<i>a/an</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>these</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>this</i>
<i>Any</i>	<i>Jim's, Sue's, etc.</i>	<i>one, two, three, etc.</i>	<i>those</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>least</i>	<i>our</i>	<i>what</i>
<i>each</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>several</i>	<i>which</i>
<i>either</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>whose</i>
<i>enough</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>such</i>	<i>your</i>

Sometimes we use **no** Determiner before the Noun when we mean "in general". We call this "**Zero Determiner**": *Dogs love biscuits.*

What do Determiners do?

Determiners have two main functions: referring and quantifying.

Referring

Referring means showing us who or what the Noun is pointing to or talking about. The most common types of determiners which we use for referring are Articles, Possessives and Demonstratives:

A: *Where's **the** newspaper?*

B: *It's on **the** sofa.* (*the* means the Noun refers to something the speaker and listener both know or are familiar with)

A: *Have you seen **my** MP3 player anywhere?*

B: *Yes. It's on **the** kitchen table.* (*my* refers to something which belongs to the speaker; *the* refers to something the speaker and listener can both identify because they both know or share knowledge about it.)

*Do you want **this** bag or are you going to put it in **that** box?* (*this* refers to something near the speaker; *that* refers to something further away.)

*Charles is looking for **his** dictionary. Have you got it?* (*his* means the Noun refers to something belonging to a male, in this case, *Charles*.)

Quantifying

'Quantifying' means showing how much of something there is, or how many:

***Five** people were arrested during an anti-war demonstration in London today.*

*There are **some** letters here for you.* (*some* means a non-specific, small number or quantity of something.)

*Do you have **enough** flour to make the bread.* (*enough* means a quantity that is sufficient or adequate for something).

Determiners and any type of Noun

Some determiners can be used with any type of Noun, Singular or Plural, Countable or Uncountable. Examples:

1. *any* ('strong form' meaning 'it does not matter which')
2. *some* ('strong form' meaning 'certain / particular'; stressed and Pronounced /sʌm/)
3. *which* (as a question word)
what (as a question word)
4. *my, your, his, Anna's*, etc.
5. *such*
6. *the*
7. *what*
8. *whose*
9. *no*

	Countable	Uncountable
Singular	A: Where would you like to sit? B: Any seat in the front row will be fine. (I don't mind which seat/It's not important which seat) Whose jacket is this?	Any information you can give me about the trains would be very useful. Whose advice do you listen to most, your parents' or your teachers'?
Plural	Some students always turn up late for class. (certain students) There were no children at the hotel.	Some processed meat contains a high level of salt. I have no news for you.

Determiners and Countable or Uncountable Nouns in Singular

We use *this* and *that* with singular countable or uncountable Nouns, but not with Plural Nouns. *This* refers to something near the speaker; *that* refers to something further away:

That film was fantastic. (countable)

This furniture is so ugly! (uncountable)

For Plural Nouns, we use *these* and *those*.

Determiners and Countable Nouns in Plural

Both, many, (a) few, the numbers two, three, four, etc., several, these and *those* are only used with Plural Nouns:

*It all happened **many years** ago.*

*I just have **a few photos** of my grandparents.*

***Several items** were missing when we opened the box to unpack everything.*

Determiners and Uncountable Nouns or Countable Nouns in Plural

Some determiners can only be used with an uncountable Noun or with a Plural Noun:

<i>all</i>	<i>some</i> /səm/ (weak form)
<i>any</i> (weak form)	zero Determiner (i.e. no determiner)
<i>enough</i>	

*Would you like **some juice**, or milk?* (uncountable Noun)

*Do we have **enough cups** for everybody?* (Plural Noun)

*We need to buy **paper** for the printer.* (zero determiner, uncountable Noun)

A / AN and THE

A / an and the: meaning

A/an and the are articles. They are a type of Determiner and they go before a Noun.

A/an before a Noun shows that what is referred to is not already known to the speaker, listener, writer and/or reader (it is the indefinite article):

Do you have **a** car?

A: Do you live in **a** house?

B: No, actually, I live in **an** apartment.

The before a Noun shows that what is referred to is already known to the speaker, listener, writer and/or reader (it is the definite article):

Where did we park **the** car? (The speaker and the listener know what car is being referred to.)

We had to paint **the** apartment before we sold it. (The speaker and the listener know what apartment is being referred to.)

The makes a Noun specific. Compare

Example	Meaning
Have you been to an ice rink?	Have you ever been to <i>any</i> ice rink? (<i>an</i> doesn't make the Noun <i>ice rink</i> specific)
Have you been to the ice rink?	The speaker and listener know the ice rink which is being referred to (e.g. the one in their town/the local one). <i>The</i> makes the Noun <i>ice rink</i> specific.

Compare again:

Not specific	Specific ('the one you and I know')
Would you like an apple?	Would you like to try the apple pie?
Do you have a cat?	Have you seen the cat?

When do we use "A" and when do we use "AN"?

In speaking, we use **a** /ə/ before a consonant sound:

a car, a house, a big truck, a wheel, a grey day

And we use **an** /ən/ before a Vowel sound:

an apple an old shoe an orchestra an umbrella, an MP3 player, an hour

Watch out: Some words that begin with a Vowel letter in writing have a consonant sound in speaking: *a united group* /ə ju:'naɪtɪd .../, *a university* /ə ju:'ni:vɜ:sɪti/, *a one-year-old child* /ə wʌn .../

Bear in mind: In some dialects in the United Kingdom, United States, or other English-speaking countries, people speak any word that begins with a "h" with a Vowel sound like "hour"!

Remember how we pronounce "THE"!

We Pronounce **the** in two ways depending on whether the sound which comes after **the** is a Consonant or a Vowel:

ðə before consonant sounds

<i>the team</i> ðə ti:m	<i>the union</i> ðə ju:niən
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ði: before vowel sounds

<i>the exit</i> ði: eksɪt	<i>the apple</i> ði: æpəl
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But: ði: also can come before any word as an emphasis of the following words (because "the team" or "the union" is so special)

<i>the team</i> ði: ti:m	<i>the union</i> ði: ju:niən
<i>the exit</i> ði: eksɪt	<i>the apple</i> ði: æpəl

A / AN and THE: typical errors

- We don't use *the* with Plural Nouns when we are referring to things in general:

We have to protect wild animals. (referring to wild animals in general)

Not: ~~the wild animals.~~

- We don't use *the* when we refer in general to something abstract or uncountable:

I love Japanese food. (all Japanese food/Japanese food in general)

Not: ~~I love the Japanese food.~~

- We don't use *the* when the Noun is not known to the listener or reader:

*Last Sunday, we saw **a** film called 'Nightmare'.* (The speaker doesn't think that the listener knows of this film.)

Not: ~~... we saw the film called 'Nightmare'.~~

- We don't use *the* instead of a possessive Pronoun:

*The police asked us to put **our** hands up.*

Not: ~~The police asked us to put the hands up.~~

- We don't use an Article with *go to bed*:

*I **go to bed** at eleven most nights.*

Not: ~~I go to the bed at eleven most nights.~~

When do we use Articles?

A / AN and the with types of Nouns

Countable Nouns

We only use *a/an* with singular countable Nouns:

*I have **a** sister and **a** brother.*

*That was **an** excellent meal.*

We can use *the* with singular and Plural countable Nouns:

<i>The lion roared.</i>	<i>The tree fell.</i>
<i>The lions roared.</i>	<i>The trees fell.</i>

Uncountable Nouns

We do not use *a/an* before uncountable Nouns:

Could I have rice instead of potatoes with my fish?

Not: ~~Could I have a rice~~

I hope we have nice weather.

Not: ~~I hope we have a nice weather.~~

We can use **the** before Uncountable Nouns when they refer to a specific example:

***The** rice we bought in the Thai shop is much better than the supermarket rice.*

***The** weather was awful last summer.*

To talk about an individual quantity or more than one quantity of an uncountable Noun, we use expressions such as *a bit of*, *a piece of* or *a [specific measure] of*:

*That's **an** amazing **bit of** news.*

Not: ~~That's an amazing news.~~

*We just made **a** big **bowl of** pasta.*

Not: ~~We just made a pasta.~~

*Could I have **a litre of** milk, please?*

Not: ~~Could I have a milk, please?~~

General Nouns

We only use *the* with general Plural Nouns when we are referring to a specific set within a general class of people or things.

Compare

<i>Books are so important in my life.</i>	I mean all books in general.
<i>The books were all over the floor.</i>	I mean specific books (that you and I know).

We can make general Nouns specific by using an Article and adding more information after the Noun.

Life is wonderful. (life in general)	The life of a soldier is full of danger. (specifically the life of soldiers, not life in general) <i>She had a life of hard work.</i> (one specific life)
History sometimes repeats itself. (history in general)	He wrote a book on the history of boxing. (specifically the history of boxing) <i>The country has a history of going to war.</i> (one specific history of one country)

Inventions, musical instruments and cultural institutions

When we talk in general about inventions, musical instruments or cultural institutions (such as the cinema, the theatre, the circus, the opera, the ballet), we often use *the*:

The computer must be the greatest invention ever. (The computer as an invention in general, not a specific computer)

The violin sounds different to the viola.

I love a night at **the opera**.

No Article before Determiners (any, some, my, this)

We do not use an Article with other words that specify a Noun (determiner), e.g. *any, some, my, her, this, that*.

I love my job. Not: I love the my job.	Does she want this book? Not: Does she want the this book?
---	---

THE with things that are universally known

We use *the* with things known to everyone (the sun, the stars, the moon, the earth, the planet) because they are a part of our physical environment or part of the natural world:

The Earth moves around **the Sun**.

We lay on **the grass** and watched **the stars**.

THE with everyday things

We use *the* with things that we know as part of our daily lives. *The* does not refer to particular things in this context.

*I do not buy **the newspaper** these days. It's free on **the Internet**.* (newspapers in general) *They always take **the train**.* (trains in general)

Jobs and professions

When we talk about a person's job, we use *a*: *She is **a** gardener. He is **an** ambulance driver.*

Places

We use **the** with mountain ranges and some mountains (*the Alps, the Eiger*), groups of islands (*the West Indies*), rivers (*the Rhine*), deserts (*the Gobi Desert*), seas (*the Mediterranean Sea*), geographical regions or habitats (*the Amazon rainforest*), motorways (*the M42*), the names of some countries (*the Kingdom of the Netherlands*).

Usually, we do not use articles with individual mountains or lakes when the name includes the word *Mount* or *Lake*: *Mount Fuji, Lake Victoria*. We do not use articles with continents (*Africa*), countries (*Romania*), towns (*Edinburgh*), and streets (*Oxford Street*).

THE with groups within society

When we talk about particular groups or people within society, we use *the* + Adjective: *I think **the rich** should pay more tax and that **the poor** shouldn't pay any. The differences between **the** haves and **the** have-nots are too large, **The young** need to be encouraged and supported in society.*

THE with dates

When we say a specific date, we use *the*, but when we write it, we don't use *the*:

Writing: *I shall see you on 24th May.* But:

Speaking: *'I'll see you on **the** twenty fourth of May.'*

When we talk about months, we do not use **the**: *My birthday is in **September**. **May** is my favourite month of all.*

When we talk about seasons in general, we can use either **in** or **in the**. **In** without **the** is often used in more formal or literary contexts:
*These birds arrive in Britain **in summer**, and leave as **the winter** begins.*

***In the summer**, we usually go to the mountains.*

*We rarely get snow **in the winter**.*

When we talk about a specific season, we use **the**:

***The winter** of 1947 was one of the coldest in Britain.*

*We shall definitely visit you **in the summer**.* (meaning next summer)

THE with newspaper, radio and Internet, but mostly not with TV

*I looked it up on **the Internet**.* Not: ~~on internet~~

*She was on **the radio** once.* Not: ~~on radio~~

*Did you see that story about parrots in **the newspaper**?* Not: ~~in newspaper~~

There's usually nothing on TV. (TV means television)

*There's usually nothing on **the television**.* (less common)

but: *There's usually nothing on **the telly**.* (telly means TV, very common)

THE with go to, be at, be in hospital, school, prison

When we talk about the activity that happens in a building rather than about the building itself, we do not use **the**.

Compare:

Without THE	With THE
<i>She did not want to be in hospital but she was too ill to go home. (in hospital means being there as a patient)</i>	<i>She did not want to be in the hospital ... (in the hospital means being in the building)</i>
<i>When I was at school, we did not have computers. (at school means being there as a student)</i>	<i>When I was at the school ... (at the school means being in the building)</i>

We do not use **the** with **bed** when we go there to sleep:

*I always **go to bed** at eleven o'clock.* Not: ~~I always go to the bed ...~~

We do not use **the** before **work** when we talk about the place where we do our job: *They **go to work** at 8 am every morning.* Not: ~~They go to the work ...~~

The "Multitalent" THAT

That is a common word in both writing and speaking but it is very confusing because we use it as a Demonstrative Pronoun (a Determiner), a Relative Pronoun, and we also use it as a Conjunction to introduce *that*-clauses! Let us look at some details:

THAT as a Pronoun

We use **that** most commonly to point to a thing or person. We use it with singular Nouns. The thing or person is often distant from the speaker and sometimes closer to the listener, or not visible to either the speaker or listener:

*"Can you pass me **that** green bowl over there?"* (Pronoun)

*"I quite like **that** one!"* [pointing to one of a selection of different paint colours]

***That** is Harold in the white shirt, isn't it?* (Pronoun)

We also use *that* to refer back to a whole clause:

A: *We are having a few friends round for dinner. Would you like to come?*

B: ***That** sounds lovely.*

*Why don't you come at around 8? **That** will give me time to get ready.*

A: *Can you tell Frank to hurry up? We have got to leave at 11.*

B: *I have already told her **that**.*

We use **that** to refer back to something that has already been spoken or written about:

*If he gets **that** job in London, he will be able to visit us more often.*

THAT as Relative Pronoun

We use **that** to introduce defining Relative Clauses. We can use **that** instead of **who**, **whom** or **which** to refer to people, animals and things.

That is more informal than **who** or **which**:

*She picked up the hairbrush **that** she had left on the bed.*

*He was the CEO of the supermarket chain, and he was responsible for an annual revenue **that** grew to 46% last year.*

THAT-clauses

We also use **that** to introduce *that*-clauses after some Verbs, Adjectives and Nouns:

*I admit **that** I was wrong.* (Verb + *that*-clause)

*Are you certain **that** the man in the car was Nick?* (Adjective + *that*-clause)

*The name of the company illustrates my belief **that** sign language is a fascinating form of communication.* (Noun + *that*-clause)

Have a closer look at the following examples:

Verb patterns: Verb + THAT-clause

Reporting Verbs + THAT-clause

Particularly, Verbs connected with reporting can be followed by a *that*-clause acting as the **direct Object**:

accept	admit	agree	announce	assume
believe	check	claim	comment	complain
confirm	consider	decide	discover	doubt
expect	explain	feel	find	find out
forget	guess	hear	hope	imagine
insist	know	mean	mention	notice
pretend	promise	prove	realise	reckon
remark	remember	repeat	reply	say
see	see to it	show	state	suggest
suppose	think	understand		

Here are some underlined examples of Reporting Verbs followed by *that* as **that-clause** acting as the **direct Object**:

*They **said** that four million workers stayed at home to protest against the tax.*

*The survey **indicated** that 28 percent would prefer to buy a house through a building society than through a bank.*

*He **knew** that something bad had happened.*

*Do you **think** that they forgot to pay or that they stole it?*

*Everyone **agrees** that we have to act quickly.*

*It is easy to **forget** that she is just a child.*

*Recent research **proves** that global warming is already a reality.*

We often leave out **that** after these Verbs, especially in informal speaking. This is sometimes called "**zero-that**". This is especially common after words such as: *guess*, *think*, *hope* and *reckon*:

*I **think** (that) he's on holiday this week.*

*I **reckon** (that) it's going to be a long, hot summer.*

Verbs followed by an indirect Object and a THAT-clause

Some verbs (generally those connected with reporting) can also be followed by an **indirect Object** (underlined) plus a *that*-clause acting as the direct object:

advise	assure	convince	inform	persuade
promise	remind	tell	warn	

*He **told** us **that it would take a long time.*** Not: ~~He told that it would take a long time.~~

*He **convinced** everyone **that the new road would be good for the town.***

*The school **informed** George **that he had passed the entry test.***

The verbs can also be used without *that*:

*She **convinced** me **I was wrong.***

Verbs followed by a prepositional phrase and a THAT-clause

Some verbs can be followed by a prepositional phrase (underlined) and a *that*-clause acting as the Direct Object:

<i>admit</i>	<i>complain</i>	<i>explain</i>	<i>mention</i>	<i>point out</i>
<i>prove</i>	<i>recommend</i>	<i>say</i>	<i>state</i>	<i>suggest</i>

We **complained** to the committee **that they had not kept us informed.**

I should like to **point out** to everyone **that it will be expensive to hire a concert hall.**

I **suggested** to Gina **that she should get a summer job.**

Adjective + THAT-clause

We use *be* + Adjective + *that*-clause to express opinions and feelings. Some Adjectives commonly used in this way are *sure, certain, right, important, afraid, pleased, sorry, surprised, worried*. We can omit *that* with no change in meaning:

It is important (that) we look at the problem in more detail.

I am sure (that) you will know a lot of people there.

They were afraid (that) we were going to be late.

Noun + THAT-clause

We use a Noun + *that*-clause to express opinions and feelings, often about certainty and possibility. We also use **that** with reporting Nouns. Some Nouns commonly used in this way are *belief, fact, hope, idea, possibility, suggestion, statement, claim, comment, argument*.

*He is also having intensive treatment in the **hope that** he will be able to train on Friday.*

*Dutch police are investigating the **possibility that** a bomb was planted on the jet.*

THAT: other uses

That is + Adjective

We use **that is** (or: *that's*) + Adjective (e.g. *that is lovely, that is good, that is great, that is terrible, that is awful*) to respond to something that someone is telling us, to show that we are listening:

A: *They got stuck in traffic on the way to the airport and missed the plane.*

B: *Oh, **that is awful.***

THAT as an intensifier

We use **not that** + Adjective to mean 'not very' or 'not as ... as you are saying'. We put spoken stress on *that*.

A: *I thought the meal was delicious.*

B: *Mine was **not that** nice.* (My meal was not as nice as you are saying. My meal was not delicious.)

A: *I would not be surprised if Emily became an actress.*

B: *I do not think she is **that** good.*

THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE

This, that, these and *those* are Demonstratives. We use *this, that, these* and *those* to point to people and things. *This* and *that* are singular. *These* and *those* are Plural. We use them as determiners and Pronouns.

Determiners	Pronouns
<i>What is in this box?</i>	<i>Come and look at this.</i>
<i>That water tastes strange.</i>	<i>That's a very good idea.</i>
<i>I might get myself a pair of those shoes.</i>	<i>Can I have one of these?</i>

THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE as Pronouns

Pointing to things

We use *this* and *that* with singular and uncountable Nouns:

Try to repeat **this** exercise every morning and evening. (*this* + singular countable Noun)

What does **this** music make you think of? (*this* + singular uncountable Noun)

I have never been to **that** part of France. (*that* + singular countable Noun)

Can I have some of **that** juice, please? (*that* + singular uncountable Noun)

We use *these* and *those* with Plural Nouns:

You can use any one of **these** computers. (*these* + Plural Noun)

I need to paint **those** windows. (*those* + Plural Noun)

Time phrases

We often use **this** with words describing time and dates like *morning*, *afternoon*, *evening*, *week*, *month*, *year* to refer to 'the one that's coming' or 'the one we are currently in':

I shall be with you some time **this evening**.

Emma seemed very happy **this afternoon**.

Catherine is in Germany all **this week**.

Referring to things or ideas

We often use *this*, *that*, *these* and *those* to refer to things or ideas:

Put the butter, chocolate and sugar in a saucepan. Heat **this** over a low flame until it melts.

We are going to eat first and then go to the film. Are you happy with **that**? (Are you happy with the idea of eating first, then going to the film?)

Can you turn **that** off if you are not watching it? [talking about the TV]

What colour are **those**? Black or dark blue. I can't see. [talking about shoes]

Referring to people

We can use **this** and **that** as Pronouns to refer to people when we want to identify ourselves or others, or to ask the identity of other speakers:

Linda, **this** is my mother, Anne.

Is **that** your brother over there?

We often do this in telephone calls and in answer-phone messages:

Hello, is **that** Ken Orm? **This** is Jane Bromham here.

THIS, THAT as replacement of Articles

We can use **this** instead of *a/an* or *the*, and *these* instead of *zero Article* or *some* when we tell stories and jokes to create a sense of the present:

[beginning of a joke] There was **this** chicken who wanted to cross the road ... (compare *There was a chicken who wanted to cross the road ...*)

These tourists came into the restaurant once and they ordered fifteen Irish coffees. (compare *Some tourists came into the restaurant once and they ordered ...*)

In informal speaking, we can use **that** as an alternative to **the** in stories when we refer to something familiar or known to the listener.

That emphasises the fact that the thing being referred to is known to the speaker and listener:

A: Where did you buy your skirt? I really like it.

B: I got it at **that** new shop next to Green's Hotel. (compare *I got it at the new shop next to Green's Hotel.*)

Physical closeness and distance

We use *this* and *these* most commonly to point to things and people that are close to the speaker or writer, or things that are happening now:

Shall I use **this** knife here? [pointing to something]

Is **this** what you mean?

*I'll post **these** letters on my way home.* [pointing to a pile of books]
*Do **these** belong to the Bradshaws?*

We use *that* and *those* most commonly to point to things and people which are not easy to identify in a situation. They are often more distant from the speaker, and sometimes closer to the listener:

*What's in **that** bottle over there?*

*Could you blow out **those** candles near you?*

Sometimes they are not visible to either the speaker or listener:

*Budapest! **That's** my favourite place!*

Emotional distance

We sometimes use *this*, *these*, *that*, *those* to identify emotional distance. We use *this* and *these* to refer to things that we feel positive about, that we are happy to be associated with, or we approve of:

*I love **these** new woollen mobile phone covers that you can get.*

We use *that* and *those* to create distance:

*What are you going to say to **that** sister of yours?*

[talking about a restaurant]

*I didn't like the decoration. It had **those** awful paintings.*

Shared knowledge and new information

We sometimes use *that* instead of *the* to refer the listener to shared knowledge, often when we are telling a story or explaining something:
*You know **that** old shop on the corner? Well, they're going to turn it into a restaurant.*

We sometimes use *this* instead of *a/an* to refer to something important or recent, or to introduce a new person or thing in a story:

***This** guy knocked on the door and asked if I wanted new windows.*

*Then suddenly she pulled out **this** big pile of papers from her briefcase and threw them on the table.*

Substitution with THAT, THOSE

In formal contexts, we can use *that* and *those* as substitutes meaning 'the one(s)':

*The most important information is **that** given at the beginning of the manual.* (*that* substitutes for *the information*)

*The methods employed are **those** familiar to researchers.* (more formal than *The methods employed are the ones familiar to researchers.*)

In formal contexts, especially in academic style, we use *that of/those of* instead of *the one of/the ones of* or *the ... one/the ... ones*. This is preferred to the possessive *X's one/X's ones*:

*The proton has a similar mass to **that of** a neutron.* (preferred to *The proton has a similar mass to the neutron's.*)

*The emotions in the poems are **those of** loss and grief.* Not: ~~The emotions in the poem are loss and grief ones.~~

We normally only use *that* as a substitute for a thing, not for a person or animal:

A: *Have you met Mr Kelly?*

B: ***The one** who works at the town hall, or his brother?*

A: ***The one** at the town hall.* Not: ~~That who works at the town hall.~~

We can use *those* as a substitute for persons, animals or things:

*There are sports facilities for guests. **Those** interested in golf can enjoy our eighteen-hole course.*

The Pronouns **SOME** and **ANY**

We use **some** and **any** in different types of clauses.

	Example	Explanation
+	<i>He's got some homework.</i> Not: He's got any homework.	<i>Some</i> is most common in affirmative clauses.
-	<i>He hasn't got any homework.</i> Not: He hasn't got some homework.	<i>Any</i> is most common in negative clauses.
?	<i>Has he got any homework?</i>	<i>Any</i> is more common in questions but we can use <i>some</i> when we are expecting the answer to be 'yes'.
+	<i>Has he got some homework?</i>	
-	<i>Hasn't he got any homework?</i> <i>Hasn't he got some homework?</i>	

The Pronoun **SOME**

We use *some* before Nouns to refer to indefinite quantities. Although the quantity is not important or not defined, using *some* implies a limited quantity:

*Can you get me **some** milk?* (The quantity is not specified. *Some* suggests a normal amount, not an unlimited amount. Compare: *Can you get me five litres of milk?*)

*I've got **some** questions for you.*

There are elephants in Africa and Asia. (The number is not limited.)

Not: ~~There are some elephants in Africa and Asia.~~

Some as a Determiner has two forms: a weak form and a strong form.

The forms have different meanings.

Weak form of **SOME** /səm/

We use the weak form of *some* in affirmative sentences and in questions (usually expecting the answer 'yes'), when the quantity is indefinite or not important (we use *any* in questions and negative sentences):

*I have got **some** /səm/ water.*

*Have you got **some** water?* (expecting the answer yes)

*Have you got **any** water?* (open yes-no question)

*I haven't got **any** water.* (negative)

We use the weak form of *some* only with uncountable Nouns and Plural Nouns:

*I am looking for **some** advice.* (+ uncountable Noun)

*Do you need **some** help?* (+ uncountable Noun)

*We need to make **some** changes to the programme.* (+ Plural Noun)

*There are a lot of advantages in doing the course online, but there are **some** disadvantages too.* (+ Plural Noun)

Warning: We do not use the weak form of **some** with singular countable Nouns: If you are looking for a book to read, I can recommend 'Animal Farm'. Not: ~~If you're looking for some book to read ...~~

Strong form of **SOME** /sʌm/

The strong form of *some* is stressed. This form contrasts with *others* or *all* or *enough*: *Why do **some** people live longer than other people?* (some, not others)

Some boys went to the front of the stage to get a better view. The rest of us couldn't see a thing. (some, not all)

There were **some** cakes left but not enough for everyone. (some, but not enough)

I am not keen on **some** types of fish. I find plaice a bit tasteless.

We can use this strong form to refer to someone or something particular but unknown, especially with singular countable Nouns:

There must be **some** way of opening this printer!

Some idiot driver crashed into the back of me.

SOME with Numbers

We use the strong form of *some* with numbers. It can suggest an unexpectedly high amount:

Some £30 billion was needed to rebuild the hospital.

Some 60% of the course is devoted to design.

Leaving out SOME

We don't use *some* when we are talking about things or people in general, when we have no idea of number or quantity:

Rats make good pets. (rats in general)

There were **some** rats in the kitchen. (a number of rats)

Does your car run on petrol or diesel? (general)

I need **some** petrol. (specific petrol for my car)

We don't use *some* for large or unlimited quantities and amounts:

The earthquake victims urgently need tents, blankets and water.

Not: ... ~~some tents, some blankets and some water.~~

ANY as Indefinite Pronoun

We use *any* before Nouns to refer to indefinite or unknown quantities or an unlimited entity:

Did you bring **any** bread?

Mr Jacobson refused to answer **any** questions.

If I were able to travel back to **any** place and time in history, I would go to ancient China.

Any has two forms: a strong form and a weak form. The forms have different meanings.

Weak form of ANY: Indefinite Quantities

We use *any* for indefinite quantities in questions and negative sentences. We use *some* in affirmative sentences:

Have you got **any** eggs?

I haven't got **any** eggs.

I've got **some** eggs. Not: ~~I've got any eggs.~~

We use weak form *any* only with Uncountable Nouns or with Plural Nouns:

Do I need to get **any** petrol? (+ uncountable Noun)

There are not **any** clean **knives**. They are all in the dishwasher. (+ Plural Noun)

Warning:

We do not use *any* with this meaning with singular countable Nouns:

Have you got **any** Italian cookery books? (or ... **an** Italian cookery book?) Not: ~~Have you got any Italian cookery book?~~

Strong form of ANY

We use **any** to mean 'it does not matter which or what', to describe something which is not limited. We use this meaning of **any** with all types of Nouns and usually in affirmative sentences.

In speaking we often stress *any*:

*Call 0800675-437 for **any** information about the courses.* (+ uncountable Noun)

*When you make a late booking, you don't know where you're going to go, do you? It could be **any** destination.* (+ singular countable Noun)
[talking about a contract for new employees]

*Do we have **any** form of agreement with new staff when they start?* (+ singular countable Noun)

A: I don't think I've ever seen you paint such a beautiful picture before.
Did you choose the colours?

B: The teacher said, we could choose **any** colours we wanted. (+ Plural countable Noun)

Any can be used as a Pronoun (without a Noun following) when the Noun is understood.

A: Have you got some £1 coins on you?

B: *Sorry, I don't think I have **any**.* (understood: I don't think I have any £1 coins.)

A: Do you find that Elizabeth gets lots of homework? Marie gets a lot.

B: *No not really. She gets hardly **any**.* (understood: She gets hardly any homework.)

A: What did you think of the cake? It was delicious, wasn't it?

B: *I don't know. I didn't get **any**.* (understood: I didn't get any of the cake.)

ANY OF

We use *any* with *of* before articles (*a / an, the*), Demonstratives (*this, these*), Pronouns (*you, us*) or possessives (*his, their*):

*Shall I keep **any of these** spices? I think they're all out of date.*

Not: ... ~~any these~~ spices?

We use *any of* to refer to a part of a whole:

*Are **any of you** going to the meeting?*

*I couldn't answer **any of these** questions.*

*I listen to Abba but I've never bought **any of their** music.*

NOT ANY and NO

Any doesn't have a negative meaning on its own. It must be used with a negative word to mean the same as *no*.

Compare:

(The examples with *no* in the right-hand column above give greater emphasis than the examples with *not any* in the left-hand column.)

not any	no
<i>There are not any biscuits left. They have eaten them all.</i>	<i>There are no biscuits left. They have eaten them all.</i>
<i>I'm selling my computer because I haven't got any space for it. Not: ... because I've got any space for it</i>	<i>I'm selling my computer because I've got no space for it.</i>
<i>There weren't any technical problems. The singer had a sore throat so they cancelled the concert. Not: There were any technical problems.</i>	<i>There were no technical problems. The singer had a sore throat so they cancelled the concert.</i>

ANY or EVERY?

We use *any* and *every* to talk about the total numbers of things in a group. Their meanings are not exactly the same:

Any doctor can prescribe medicine. (or **Every** doctor can ...)

Every always refers to the total number of something. *Any* refers to one, several or all of a total number. We use **every** not **any** with Countable Nouns in Singular when we mean 'each individual member of a group of something'.

Compare:

<i>You can come over for dinner any evening.</i>	It doesn't matter which one, or you can come every evening.
<i>He came over for dinner every evening last week.</i>	All of the evenings.

ANY and Comparatives

We use *any* with Comparative Adjectives and Adverbs:

*You can't buy this laptop **any cheaper** than here.* (It is not possible to buy the laptop cheaper in another place.)

*I'll see if we can go **any faster**.* (faster than we are going now)

ANY: typical errors

- We do not use 'weak form' *any* with Countable Nouns in Singular:

*They have a big lunch in school so they don't need **a** hot meal in the evening.* Not: ... ~~so they don't need any hot meal in the evening.~~

- We use *every* not *any* with singular countable Nouns when we mean 'each individual member of a group':

*The hotel is luxurious and it has **every** type of activity.* Not: ... ~~it has any type of activity~~ ...

Indefinite Pronouns: (-body, -one, -thing, -where)

Somebody, anyone, everything, etc. are indefinite Pronouns.

We use *-body, -one, -thing, -where* to refer to people, places and things in a general way. We write them as one single word, apart from *no one*, which can be written as two separate words or with a hyphen (*no-one*).

<i>somebody</i>	<i>someone</i>	<i>something</i>	<i>somewhere</i>
<i>anybody</i>	<i>anyone</i>	<i>anything</i>	<i>anywhere</i>
<i>nobody</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>nowhere</i>
<i>everybody</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>everything</i>	<i>everywhere</i>

The differences in their meanings are the same as the differences between *some, any, every* and *no*. We use them all with a singular verb:

*Is **anyone** helping Claire with the washing up?*

***Everybody** makes mistakes.*

*I'm looking for **somewhere** I can store my bike.*

ANYONE, ANYBODY or ANYTHING?

Anyone, anybody and *anything* are Indefinite Pronouns. We use *anyone, anybody* and *anything* to refer to both an open, unlimited set of things or people and specific things or people. We use them with a Verb in Singular:

*Has **anyone** got a dictionary?*

***Anybody** is welcome to join. There are not any rules.*

*Can I do **anything** to help?*

*I don't know **anybody** who speaks Portuguese.*

Anything, anyone, anybody don't have a negative meaning on their own: *We stayed in Sevilla for the rest of our holidays. **No one** wanted to come back, but we had to.* Not: ~~*Anyone wanted to come back.*~~

ANYONE and ANYBODY

Anyone and *anybody* have no difference in meaning. *Anybody* is a little less formal than *anyone*. *Anyone* is used more in writing than *anybody*.

*I didn't know **anybody** at the party.*

-BODY and -ONE

-body and **-one** mean the same thing. In informal contexts, we use indefinite Pronouns ending in **-body** more often than Pronouns ending in **-one**. The forms with **-one** are more common in formal writing:

***Nobody** was interested in the talk. (or **No-one** was ...)*

***Everyone** started to clap. (or **Everybody** ...)*

SOMEWHERE NICE, NOTHING MUCH, SOMEWHERE ELSE

We can add an Adjective or adverbial expression to these Indefinite Pronouns to make them more specific:

A: What did you do at the weekend?

B: **Nothing much.**

*Are you thinking of **anyone in particular**?*

*Is there **something else** I can do to help?*

*Shall we go **somewhere nice**?*

*I have been looking for my book here but it must be **somewhere else**!*

Determiners and types of Noun

We cannot use all the determiners with all types of Noun. We can use some determiners with any type of Noun, but others must be followed by certain types of Noun.

Determiners and Countable Nouns in Singular

Some determiners can only be used with a singular countable Noun. These are:

a/an another each either every neither one

*Would you like **another glass** of water?*

*Life gets more expensive **every day**.*

A: Can we meet on the 15th or 16th?

B: Sorry. **Neither date** is good for me. What about the 18th?

Determiners and Uncountable Nouns in Singular

Much, (a) little, less and least can only be used with a singular uncountable Noun:

*We didn't get **much snow** last winter.*

*There is **little information** I can give you, I'm afraid.*

We sometimes use *less* with Plural Nouns, but this is not always considered correct:

*There were **less children** there today than last year. (There were fewer children... is considered correct.)*

MUCH, A LOT, LOTS, A GOOD DEAL: Adverbs

We use *much, a lot, lots* and *a good deal* as Adverbs to refer to frequency, quantity and degree.

MUCH

We use *much* in questions and negative clauses to talk about degrees of something. We put it in end position:

*I don't like the sea **much**.*

Warning:

We don't use *much* in affirmative clauses:

*I hadn't seen my mother for a month. I'd missed her **a lot**.*

Not: ... I'd missed her ~~much~~.

In informal styles, we often use *much* in questions and negative clauses to mean 'very often':

*Do you see Peter **much**?*

*I haven't played tennis **much** this year.*

In formal styles, we use *much* as an intensifier meaning 'really' with verbs that express likes and dislikes:

*He **much** enjoyed his week in the 5-star hotel.*

*Thank you for your help. It was **much** appreciated.*

VERY MUCH

We often use *very much* as an intensifier in affirmative and negative clauses and questions:

[in a formal letter]

*Please find attached my report. I **very much** welcome your comments.*

*Is she **very much** like her father?*

Warning:

With the Verb *like* we don't put **very much** between the Verb and its object:

*I like comedy films **very much**.* Not: ~~I like very much comedy films.~~

TOO MUCH, SO MUCH

We often use *too much* to mean an excessive amount, 'more than enough':

*He talks **too much**.*

*You worry **too much**.*

We can also use *so much* to mean 'to a large degree' or 'a large amount' or 'a lot':

*She's changed **so much**. I hardly recognised her.*

*I've eaten **so much**.*

A LOT, A GOOD DEAL and A GREAT DEAL

We can use *a lot*, *a good deal* and *a great deal* as Adverbs of frequency, quantity or degree:

A: Have you ever been to Brosh?

B: Actually we go there **a lot**.

*I'm really hungry now. I didn't have **a lot** for breakfast.*

A good deal and a great deal are more formal than a lot.

Compare

A: How's your mum?	A: How's your mum?
B: She's feeling a good deal better, thanks.	B: She's feeling a lot better, thanks.
<i>She always worries a great deal.</i>	<i>She always worries a lot.</i>

Quantifiers, Classifiers, Measure Words and Mass Nouns

A **Mass Noun** (also **Uncountable Noun** or Non-Count Noun) is a common Noun that cannot be directly modified by a numeral without specifying a unit of measurement, and that they cannot combine with the indefinite article **a** or **an**. For example, the Mass Noun "water" is quantified as "20 litres of water", while the Countable Noun "chair" is quantified as "20 chairs". However, both Mass Nouns and Countable Nouns can be quantified in relative terms without unit specification (e.g., "so much water," "so many chairs").

In English, there is a tendency for Nouns referring to liquids (water, juice), powders (sugar, sand), or substances (metal, wood) to be uncountable, and for Nouns referring to Objects or people to be countable. This is **not a hard-and-fast rule**, but Mass Nouns such as furniture and cutlery, which represent more easily quantified objects, show that the countable/uncountable distinction should be thought of as a **habit of language**, rather than as a property of the things. Look, the same set of chairs can be referred to as "six chairs" and as "furniture"; although both *chair* and *furniture* are referring to the same thing, the former is a Countable Noun and the latter a Mass Noun. The English words "fruit" and "vegetables". give us another illustration of the principle that the countable/non-countable distinction lies not in an Object but rather in the expression that refers to it. The Objects that these words describe are similar (that is, they are all edible plant parts); yet the word "fruit" is (usually) non-countable, whereas "vegetables" is a countable form in Plural. We can see that the difference is in the language, not in the reality of the objects!

Quantifiers In English

Sometimes, it is difficult to count or quantify things correctly. Let us begin by showing how to quantify a Noun. We can say:

any / some (water)	any / some (apples)	several apples
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Learners of English are often frustrated by being forced to make a difference between countable and non-countable Nouns because we have to choose between either **many**, **few**, or **much**, **little**. This is a constant source of mistakes. Avoid mistakes by using words like **plenty of**, **lots of** or **a lot of**, and **almost no** (for the negative) as they make no difference between countable and non-countable Nouns. Look, in the alternative version, we always can use the same quantifiers:

Neutral Quantifiers (positive and negative, and an alternative):

much (water)	many (apples)	plenty of (water, apples)
little (water)	few (apples)	almost no (water, apples)

Comparative Quantifiers (positive and negative, and an alternative):

more (water)	more (apples)	plenty of (water, apples)
less (water)	fewer (apples)	almost no (water, apples)

Superlative Quantifiers (positive and negative, and an alternative):

the most (water)	the most (apples)	plenty of (water, apples)
the least (water)	the fewest (apples)	almost no (water, apples)

This brings up the topic How to avoid **many**, **few**, or **much**, **little** in questions? Well, instead of **plenty of**, **lots of** or **a lot of**, we could say

a large amount / quantity of, or for the negative **a small amount / quantity of**. So we can ask: "How large is the amount of water?" or "How small is the amount of water?". Even easier we also could ask "What is the amount / quantity of the water?" or "What is the amount / quantity of the apples?", or "In which quantity can I get the water / apples?"

Measure Words or Partitives and Classifiers

According to grammar experts and their official books, there are no **Measure Words** in English such as those in the Chinese language. However, in reality, we English speakers use a lot of words in the very same way as Chinese speakers use their Measure Words. These words are used in connexion with so-called **Uncountable Nouns** and **Nouns that describe things which are not easy to count**, quite simply because they are so numerous just as, for instance, *a box of pins*, *a heap of pins*, *a number of pins*, or *plenty of pins*. The words *plenty of*, and *almost no* do not need an article in front. Usually, English Measure words are Nouns themselves. They are **Noun Phrases** and therefore we put the article "a" in front of them: **a lot of**, **a load of**, **a piece of**, **a pile of**. In Plural, however, they do not take an article: **lots of**, **loads of**, **pieces of**, **piles of**.

The English **Measure Words** or **Measure Phrases** can be classified in these main tasks in which they describe things: containers, shapes, amounts, groups, masses, and measure units. These words and phrases can measure as well as classify Nouns. So, a Measure Word or Measure Phrase is also a Classifier! Look:

Measure Phrases denoting a certain amount or being a part of some thing:

a piece of (cheese)	an amount of (food)	a couple of (coins)
a mass of (snow)	a sum of (money)	a pair of (socks)
a chunk of (copper)	a dose of (medicine)	a number of (people)
a lump of (dough)	a unit of (money)	a rate of (growth)
a helping of (beans)	a portion of (beans)	a quantity of (water)
a kind of (metal)	a sort of (metal)	

a section of (the cake)	a part of (the city)	a fragment of (the plate)
an area of (the country)	a region of (the country)	

Measure Phrases denoting any kind of measure unit

a milligramme of (penicilline)	a gramme of (gold)	half a kilogramme of (fruits)
a kilogramme of (fruits)	a ton of (steelrods)	

a grain of (gold)	a dram (1/16 oz) of	a drachm (1/8 fl-oz) of
an ounce of (gold)	a pound of (pears)	a stone of (potatoes)
a hundredweight of (rice)	a long ton of (turnips)	

a millimetre of (paper)	a centimetre of (wood)	a decimetre of (wood)
a metre of (wood)	a kilometre of (cable)	

an inch of (wood)	a foot of (wood)	a yard of (wood)
a mile of (cable)		

a millilitre of (blood)	a litre of (juice)	a hectolitre of (water)
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a halfpint of (ale)	a pint of (cider)	a barrel of (crude oil)
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Measure Phrases denoting a vast amount of something:

a barrel of	a basketful of	a boatload of
a bucket of	a bunch of	a bundle of
a bushel of	a carload of	a chunk of
a deal of	a dozen of	a good deal of
a fistful of	a gob of	a heap of
a hundred of	a lashing of	a load of
a lot of	a mass of	a mess of
a mountain of	a mug of	a multiplicity of
a myriad of	a pack of	a passel of
a peck of	a pile of	a plateful of
a plenitude of	a plenitude of	a pot of
a potful of	an oodles of	a profusion of
a quantity of	a raft of	a reams of
a scads of	a sheaf of	a shipload of
a sight of	a slew of	a spate of
a stack of	a store of	a ton of
a yard of	a thousand of	a truckload of
a volume of	a wad of	

In Numbers (here shown in Plural):

dozens of	hundreds of	thousands of
ten thousands of	hundred thousands of	millions of
billions of	trillions of	

Measure Phrases denoting smallness or a tiny bit of something:

an ace of	a blob of (paint thinner)	a corn of (rice)
a dab of	a dash of	a dot of (paint)
a dribble of	a drop of (juice)	an ear of (wheat)
a fistful of	a fleck of	a flyspeck of
a glimmer of	a grain of (rice)	a globule of (oil)
a handful of	a hint of	a lick of
a little of	a mark of (dirt)	a mite of
a mouthful of	a nip of	an ounce of
a particle of (pigment)	a peanut of	a pinch of
a pittance of	a point of (ink)	a scrap of (paper)
a scruple of	a shade of	a shadow of
a shred of (paper)	a sip of (tea)	a smidge(n)
a smidgeon	a smidgin	a spatter of (gravy)
a speck of (dirt)	a spike of	a splatter of (gravy)
a spot of (dirt)	a sprinkle of	a sprinkling of
a stain of (blood)	a strain of	a streak of
a suspicion of	a tad of	a taste of
a tick of (time)	a touch of	a trace of (footprints)

Measure Phrases denoting any kind of group

an ambush of (tigers)	a band of (gorillas)	a bulk of (cars)
a bunch of (flowers)	a bundle of (sticks)	a cast of (falcons)
circle of (cherries)	a cluster of (stars)	a clutter of (cats)
a collection of (stamps)	a colony of (rabbits)	a drove of (pigs)
a family of (plants)	a flock of (birds, sheep)	a game of (swans)
a gathering of (birds)	a group of (workers)	a heap of (clothes)

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a herd of (cattle)	a horde of (rats)	a line of (customers)
a pack of (wolves)	a pack of (cigarettes)	a package of (cigars)
a packet of (biscuits)	a pile of (books)	a queue of (patients)
a row of (cherries)	a run of (good luck)	a school of (dolphins)
a sequence of (shots)	a stack of (wood)	a swarm of (bees)
a tribe of (goats)	a troop of (kangaroos)	a wrapping of (sticks)

a pack of (playing cards)	a deck of (playing cards)	a set of (playing cards)
a hand of (good cards)	a run of three cards (from 10 to Queen of Hearts)	a set of three cards (Kings)

Measure Phrases denoting a long and stick-like shape or appearance:

a bar of (chocolate)	a beam of (wood)	a column of (stone)
a cylinder of (metal)	a log of (oak)	a mast of (metal)
a pillar of (concrete)	a pipe of (plastic)	a pole of (metal)
a post of (wood)	a rod of (metal)	a roll of (plastic)
a stick of (wood)	a tube of (concrete)	

Measure Phrases denoting a flat and disk-like shape or appearance:

a wheel of (steel)	a disk of (glass)	a coin of (copper)
a plate of (bananas)	a ring of (gold)	a saucer of (porcelain)

Measure Phrases denoting a flat and angular shape or appearance:

a board of (wood)	a foil of (plastic)	a pane of (glass)
a panel of (metal)	a plank of (wood)	a sheet of (cloth)
a slab of (limestone)	a tile of (ceramics)	a wall of (bricks)

Measure Phrases denoting other shapes:

a cube of (butter)	a block of (ice)	a chip of (glass)
a dish of (beans)	a flake of (wood)	a fork of (meat)
a knife of (butter)	a shelf of (books)	a slice of (bread)
a spoon of (salt)		

Measure Phrases denoting Containers for liquids:

a basin of (soup)	a barrel of (beer)	a beaker of (water)
a bottle of (gin)	a bowl of (rice)	a bucket of (water)
a can of (beer)	a cup of (tea)	a flask of (perfume)
a glass of (wine)	a jar of (marmelade)	a mug of (coffee)
a pan of (potatoes)	a pot of (tea)	a tin of (peaches)
a thermosflask of (tea)	a tube of (toothpaste)	a tumbler of (water)
a vase of (flowers)		

Measure Phrases denoting Containers for non-liquids:

a bag of (tangerines)	a basket of (fruits)	a box of (chocolates)
a case of (jewellery)	a chest of (gold)	a cone of (icecream)
a container of (goods)	a net of (oranges)	a sack of (rice)
a sachet of (coffee)	a tricorn of (nuts)	a vessel of ()

Measure Phrases denoting buildings:

a barn of (particle board)	a bridge of (steel)	a cabin of (flakeboard)
a building of (adobe)	a house of (timber)	a shed of (chipboard)

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The following table shows each item as a single unit (e.g. **a drop of paint, a plot of land**). It can very well be more than a single unit, for example **drops of paint, plots of land**). The content in the table includes other expressions such as a release of a strong emotion, for example **an outburst of anger**, an aspect of something, for example **an element of danger**, etc which may not be termed partitives.

Noun	Measure word or Partitive
activity	an outburst of
advice	a morsel of
anger	a fit / an outburst of
applause	a burst / ripple of
bacon	a piece / rasher / slice of
banknotes	a bundle / wad of
beer	a barrel / bottle / can / crate / glass / keg / tankard / pint of
biscuit	a box / crumb / packet / tin of
blood	a drop / pool / trickle of; spots / traces of
bread	a chunk / crumb / hunk / loaf / piece / slice of
butter	a knob / lump / pat of
cake	a crumb / piece / slice / sliver / wedge of
cardboard	a piece / sheet of cardboard
cement	a block of
cheese	a chunk / hunk / morsel / slice / wedge of
chess	a game of
china	a chip / set of
chocolate	a bar / box / slab / square of
clay	a lump of

cloth	a bale / length / piece / scrap / shred / strip of
coal	a load / lump / piece of
coffee	a jar of
concrete	a layer / slab of
cotton	a bundle / strand of
cream (whipped)	a dollop of
cutlery	a set of
danger	an element of
delight	a cry / gasp / shriek / squeal / whoop of
derision	a hoot of
dirt	a speck of
disapproval	a shout of
dizziness	a rush of
doubt	a hint
dust	a cloud / film / puff / speck of
earth	a clod / clump / lump of
envy	a stab of
evidence	a scrap / shred of
exasperation	a hint
excitement	a ripple of
flame	a sheet of
flu	a bout / dose of
food	scraps of
genius	a flash / stroke of
glass	a pane / piece / sheet / fragment / sliver / splinter of
glue	a blob / pot / tube of
gossip	a bit / piece / titbit of

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grass	a clump of
grease	a film / spot of
guilt	a twinge of
gum	a wad of
hair	a head / strand of
hay	a bundle of
history	a piece / slice of
homework	a piece of
hope	a glimmer / shred of
ice	a block / slab / thick sheet of
ice cream	a dollop of
information	a scrap of
ink	a pot of
inspiration	a flash of
iron	a scrap of
jam	a dollop / jar / pot of
jealousy	a fit / pang / rush / stab / twinge
land	a parcel / plot / strip; tracts of, stretch of
laughter	a gale / howl / outburst / peal / ripple / roar / shriek of
lemon	a slice/ wedge of
light	a beam / gleam / glimmer / flash / ray / shaft of
lightning	a bolt / flash of
liquid	a drop / pool / squirt of
luck	a stroke of
meat	a chunk / hunk / piece / slab / slice of
medicine	a dose of
metal	a scrap / sheet / strip / wedge of

mint	a sprinkling of
money	an amount / a sum of
moonlight	a shaft of
mud	a lump of
music	a piece of
mustard	a spoonful of
news	an item / a bit / piece of
news (bad)	a dose of
newspaper	a copy / edition / sheet
nonsense	a load / lot of
oil	a barrel / drop / film / pool / squirt of
orange	a segment of
pain	a howl of
paint	a blob / coat / drop / flake / speck / splash of
paper	a bundle / piece / scrap / sheet / slip / strip of
perfume	a bottle / puff of
poetry	an anthology / a book / collection / line / volume of
rage	a bellow of rage
rain	a drop/trickle of
rock	a chunk / lump / piece / slab of
rope	a length of
rubbish	a bag / load / pile; tons of
saliva	a dribble of
salt	a grain / pinch of
sand	a grain of
sauce	a dash / drop of
scorn	a shout of

scepticism	a pinch of
smoke	a cloud / puff / wisp of
snow	a flake of; flakes of
soap	a bar/cake of
spaghetti	a strand
speed	a burst of
steam	a cloud, jet of
steel	a strip of
stone	a slab of
sugar	a cube / lump / pinch / spoonful / bag / packet of
sunlight	a shaft of
thread	a length, piece, strand of
thunder	a clap / crash / peal / roll / rumble of
timber	a baulk / length / piece
tissue	a wad of
traffic	a roar of
truth	an element / a grain of
understanding	a level of
underwear	a change / set of
unease	a ripple of
violence	a level of
water	a drop / jet of
wire	a length, piece, strand of
wood	a baulk / block / splinter / wedge of
wool	a bundle of
work	a bit / collection / exhibition / piece of
writing	an anthology / a collection / piece of

Using those Measure phrases must make common sense. Countable Nouns, of course, can be preceded by numbers such as *5 cherries* or *127 cherries*, quite simply because numbers **are** Measure Words themselves. We can describe in what situation the things appear: a can of cherries, a box of cherries, a line of cherries, a row of cherries, a circle of cherries, a heap of cherries, a basket of cherries, a handful of cherries, 250 grammes of cherries, and even: a piece of cherry, a dish of cherries or a sauce of cherries.

Uncountable Nouns can be preceded by a number only together with a Measure Word. To say "Two water" sounds to a listening English speaker rather odd. We have to say something like: "**two glass of water, two bottles of water, 5 beakers of water, 5 litre of water, 5 kilogrammes of water, plenty of water, little of water**". Even Adverbs, Comparatives and Superlatives can be used as Measure Words: "**some water, any water, more water, most water, no water, less water, least water, much more water, much less water**".

Fractions also belong to this kind of words. We can say "**1/8 (one eighth, or an eighth) of an apple, 1/4 (a or one quarter or fourth) of a cake, 1/3 (one or a third) of a cake, 1/2 (a or one half) of a cake**". We can express all the same in a percentage: 12.5% (twelve point five percent) of an apple, 25% (twenty-five percent) of an apple, 33.3% of a cake, 50% of a cake. And when we have several apples of cakes we can do quite the same thing: 1/8 (one eighth, or an eighth) **of all** apples or cakes, or 12,5% **of all** apples or cakes! No question, we even can say it in Decimal numbers: 0.125 (nought point one two five) of the amount **of all** apples or cakes.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS, Usage of the Describing Words

The **Adjective** describes the quality and quantity of a Noun and stands before it. The **Adverb** describes a Verb and usually follows it, and it can describe an Adjective or another Adverb and then it stands before it. When there are more than one **Adjectives** before a Noun, they are usually arranged in the following **word order**. Note that the **1st** position can be taken by any **Possessive Adjective**, any other **Determiner**, any **Noun** or **Name** in **Genitive** or any **Number Word**:

1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Deter.	Opinion	Size	Age	Shape	Colour	Nationality	Material
the	beautiful	tiny	young	slim	white	English	ivory
a(ny)	pretty	large	old	round	blue	Dutch	wooden
some	fine	high	former	angled	brown	American	metal
one	lovely	long	infant	rough	green	Canadian	textile
Ela's	plain	small	aged	oval	red	Chinese	stony
my	ugly	big	fresh	square	black	French	plastic
this	great	little	older	bulky	yellow	German	glass
these	pleasing	short	early	smooth	purple	Austrian	silky

So we can say "*He is an impressive, tall, young, athletic, brown American sportsman*" or "*She has a beautiful, small, old, oval, red box*". Of course, we can use all those Adjectives as a complement (in place of an Object) in a sentence: "*Her box is beautiful, small, old, oval, and red*". or "*Her beautiful, small box is, old, oval, and red*".

Some Adjectives are only in use after the Verb "to be, to get, to become, seem, or feel": afraid, alive, tired, sleepy, asleep, alone,

ready, sorry, sure, unable, well, glad, ill, evil: *He is alone, He gets ready, He becomes tired, He seems asleep, He feels sleepy.*

We use other Adjectives, (such as main, other, indoor, outdoor, absolute, utter, total, atomic) only before a Noun (good dictionaries call them "**prenominal**"): *Some of her talk was total nonsense.* or *He behaves like an utter fool.* or *The villa has an outdoor swimming pool.* The Neutral Adjective is the base form which we normally find in a dictionary. The comparative ending for short, common Adjectives and Adverbs generally is "**-er**"; the Superlative ending generally is "**-est**." For most Adjectives and Adverbs that have more than two syllables, the Comparative is made by placing the word "**more**" before the Neutral Adjective and for the Superlative we use the word "**most**".

Adverbs are often made of those Adjectives by adding the ending **-ly**, but there are some natural Adverbs such as "**well**", or others that do not take the ending **-ly**, such as *fast, ill, far, soon, much, a bit, a lot*. Some Adjectives have no Adverbs at all (such as "*tall*" or "*few*"), because they would not make sense when describing an action.

The transforming Abilities of a Describing Word

An Adjective can be changed into an Adverb (by adding **-ly** to its end). And the other way round, an Adverb can serve as Adjective.

By adding the ending **-ish** we can be deliberately inexact. Instead of *about six* or *somewhat six* we can say *sixish* or even *six o'clockish*. So we also can say *blueish, greenish, eightish, fiveish*.

With Adjectives and Adverbs we can compare. A Comparative is used to compare two things or actions. A Superlative is used when we compare three or more things or actions. So you can compare the size of apples, determining which is **big**, which is **bigger**, and which is (the) **biggest** (the Superlative can become a Noun by using “**the**”).

Adjectives or Adverbs can express the **opposite** meaning by placing the little word “**not**” before it. The Opposite of “**good**” is “**bad**” or “**not good**”. By using “not” you can avoid prefixes you do not know!

We can say the opposite meaning also with most Comparatives and Superlatives by using **less** and **least**, which increases our vocabulary once again. The Opposite of “**complete**” is “**incomplete**” or “**not complete**”, therefore the Opposite Comparative is “**less complete**” or “**not so complete**”, the Opposite Superlative is “**least complete**” or can be “**not complete at all**”. These cheap tricks gives you the ability to make your vocabulary even larger!

We can turn an Adjective into a Noun by adding the ending **-ness**: “**Smallness can be an advantage**”. We even can turn the Adjective into a Verb when we want that the Adjective describes a change of action or quality. We usually do this by adding the ending **-en** on the end of the Adjective or the equivalent Noun: short – shorten, long – lengthen. In fact, we can use a very simple trick to make a Verb from an Adjective: We just use the Basic English Verb **make** and say: *make it long, make it old, make it beautiful, make it young, or: make it younger, make it shorter, make it bigger, make it taller, make it less difficult, make it less expensive, and so on!*

In these examples we also can use **him** for a man or **her** for a woman, or we can use the real Noun or Pronoun instead: make **the skirt** shorter, make **the price** smaller, make **your clothes** dry. You see: Our variations are almost endless.

The word “**much**” is used to make the Comparative and the Opposite Comparative stronger, with “**little**” we strengthen their quality only moderately. we can place the little word “**too**” before any Neutral Adjective and Adverb to say that something has gone beyond a certain limit. The word “**very**” is used with Neutral Adjectives, Adverbs and even Nouns to express a higher grade: **to this very day**. It shows the highest grade when it stands before a Superlative: **the very best**.

School books have only 3-column tables (good - better - best). I show you here the most common Describing Words in an **8-column table** with examples and useful phrases so that you can see in an entire overview what we can do with them. In the first 3 columns we see the Neutral Adjective, its Comparative and Superlative. In the next 3 columns we see them as possible Opposites. In the 7th column we see the Adverb and in the 8th column we see how we can change the Adjective into a Noun with a general meaning. I have arranged some Adjectives in the **10 most important categories of forms**. We must learn by heart the first table about the **Irregular, Incomplete, and Confusing Adjectives**, because they are the most important ones. The other Adjectives are pretty regular. **After those 10 categories** I am going to show you in an **Aspect Diagram** how we can use all Adjectives in so-called **postnominal expressions** (as complements) with Verb tenses in the **Simple Aspect** and **Perfect Aspect** together.

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1st: Irregular, Incomplete, and Confusing Adjectives. (Some Intensifier for Adjectives: *rather, quite, pretty, really, very, extremely, too*)

Neutral Adjective (-ish = somehow, somewhat)	Comparative	Superlative (often with article "the")	Opposite Adjective (here with not and the real ones)	Opposite Comparative	Opposite Superlative (with "the")	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
good / well; goodish	better	best	bad ; not good	less good / better	least good / best	well	wellness, goodness
bad / ill / evil; baddish	worse	worst	good ; not bad	less bad / ill / evil	least bad / ill / evil	badly, ill	badness
much (amount) / a lot of	more	most	little ; not much	less much	least much	much; a lot	muchness; lots / lot
little (amount) / a bit of	less / lesser	least	much / often ; not little	less little	least little	(a) little; a bit	smallness; bit
many (number) / lots of	more	most	few ; not many	less many	least many	-	many; lots / lot
few (number) / a few	fewer	fewest	many ; not few	less few	least few	-	few; fewness
little (size) / small (ish)	lesser, smaller	smallest	big / large / great ; not small	less little / small	least little / small	-	smallness
old (things) / aged; oldish	older	oldest	new / fresh ; not old	less old	least old	-	oldness, age
old (people) / elderly	elder	eldest	young ; not old	less old	least old	-	oldness, age
near	nearer	nearest / next	far ; not near	less near	least near	nearly	nearness; nearside
far (distance)	farther	farthest	near / close ; not far	less far	least far	far	farness
far (extent); forth	further(more)	furthe(rmo)st	near / next / soon; not far	less far	least far	far; forth	farness
late (time)	later	latest	early ; soon; not late	less late	least late	lately	lateness
late (order)	latter	last	first ; not late / not last	less late	least late	lately, lastly	lateness
fore ; before (adverb)	former	foremost, first	aft	after	aftmost, last	firstly, formerly	fore
aft	after	aft(er)most; last	fore	former	foremost, first	aft	aft
hind ; back	hinder	hindmost, hindermost	fore	former	foremost, first	beyond	hinds, hind, hindsight
(in)	inner	inmost, innermost	-	outer	out(er)most	innerly	innerness, in, ins
(out)	outer, utter	outmost, outermost, utmost, uttermost	-	inner	in(ner)most	out, utterly	out, outs
(up)	upper	upmost, uppermost	low	lower	lowest	up	up, ups, upper
top	-	topmost	low	lower	lowest	top off / out / up	top; tops (verb: to top)

Examples and useful phrases: blue is **good**; green is **better than** blue; red is **the best**; the **last** song was **as nice as** the **first**; this old picture is **less old than** the other one; the mountain is **less far than** I thought; the work is **well** done; the party went **very well**; let me know **well** in advance; it is **well** that he agreed to go; I am very **well**, thank you!; I am **good**, thanks!; she is **well** informed; we live **well**; the **good** man; this man is **evil**; the other man is **less evil**; oh, **goodness** me, what a surprise!; he talked **badly**; the shirt suits me **very well**; we can **ill** afford the money; **ill** deeds were committed last night; you should not listen to that **evil** person; **worst** of all, they have **a lot** to do; this is **bad** quality and that one is even **worse**; **a lot** / **much** has to be done before the wedding; we have **a bit of** water; **lots** / **plenty of** wine; he has **a lot of** books; he left us this **very** day; **a good many** people came in; they have **a great many** kids; he **little** realised his fate; she laughed **a little**; the hat looks **a bit smallish**, doesn't it? it is somewhat **small**; **few** men are so cruel; such a **little** girl; **little** has happened yet; I took the **smaller** shirt, because it is **less little** than I have thought **first**; **little** was done for the poor; Jim got **little more** money than Bill; **first** of all I say ...; ...and so **forth**; the planet Mars is **farther than** the Moon; that goes **too far**; come **nearer**!; he **nearly** fell; we do not need to talk about it **further**; things have gone **further**; listen to the **latest** news; the **latest** news coming up at eight; I heard some rumours **lately**; sorry, I am **late**!; who is **next**? she comes **next**; the dog is sitting **nearest** to the boss; this is my **elder** brother; please offer your seat to **elderly** people!; the **fore** part of a ship is the bow; the **aft** part of a ship is the stern; safety is **the foremost** we must consider; we will go to the **inner** circle; he did his **utmost** for the people; the **former** president speaks; the **outer** region of the city; she adores him **utterly**; I **utterly** reject his idea; you will find the money in the **upper** drawer, not in the **lower** one; look on the **uppermost** shelf; learning these adjectives has **top** priority!

2nd: One-syllable adjectives that do not follow any form rules

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
clean ; cleanable	cleaner	(the) cleanest	not clean; dirty / filthy	less clean	(the) least clean	cleanly	cleanness
new	newer	(the) newest	not new; old / aged / antique	less new	(the) least new	newly	newness
soon	sooner	(the) soonest	not soon; late / far	less soon	(the) least soon	soon	-
dear	dearer	(the) dearest	not dear; cheap	less dear	(the) least dear	dearly	dearness
cheap	cheaper	(the) cheapest	not cheap; dear / expensive	less cheap	(the) least cheap	cheaply	cheapness
fast ; firm	faster	(the) fastest	not fast; loose / slow	less fast	(the) least fast	fast	fastness; firmness
quick	quicker	(the) quickest	not quick; slow	less quick	(the) least quick	quickly	quickness
great	greater	(the) greatest	not great; little / tiny / small	less great	(the) least great	greatly	greatness
short	shorter	(the) shortest	not short; long / tall	less short	(the) least short	shortly	shortness
tall	taller	(the) tallest	not tall; low / short	less tall	(the) least tall	-	tallness

Examples and useful phrases: the **cleaner** the environment, the healthier the people; the **cheapest** shoes are the **least pretty** ones; my **dearest** friend, I do apologise; an aeroplane is **very fast**, nonetheless, a space rocket is **much faster**; the work was done **greatly** by her; Mozart was **great** musician; those children have **new** books but Jack's book is the **least new** of them; a **new** era has begun; they had **newly** raised hopes; she came **quickly** to me; that is a **pretty quick-witted** man; I am **rather short of** money. the people came **shortly** before the meeting; the building is **not tall**. there is an **extremely tall** tree; you have promised to give me a **very fast** car but, I am afraid, the car is **rather less fast than** I have imagined.

3rd: One-syllable adjectives ending in "e"

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
huge	huger	(the) hugest	not huge; tiny	less huge	(the) least huge	hugely	hugeness
large ; big	larger	(the) largest	not large; small	less large	(the) least large	largely	largeness
close	closer	(the) closest	not close; far / open	less close	(the) least close	closely	closeness; closer
strange	stranger	(the) strangest	not strange; familiar	less strange	(the) least strange	strangely	strangeness; stranger
wise	wiser	(the) wisest	not wise; stupid / daft	less wise	(the) least wise	wisely	wiseness; wisdom

Examples and useful phrases: my **closest** friend; the cat was sitting **less close** to me than the dog; there was a **huge** man among the others; poverty is **largely** caused by lack of education; the flower smells **quite strange**; even **the wisest** can become **wiser**.

4th: One-syllable adjectives ending in "y"

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
dry	drier	(the) driest	not dry; wet	less dry	(the) least dry	drily	dryness; dryer
shy	shier / shyer	(the) shiest / shyest	not shy; outgoing	less shy	(the) least shy	shyly	shyness; shies; shyer
spry	sprier / spryer	(the) spriest / spryest	not spry; idle / lazy	less spry	(the) least spry	spryly	spryness

Examples and useful phrases: the desert is **dry**, even a **dry** desert harbours life; Mary is **less shy** than Linda, but Amanda is the **shiest** of all the three sisters; the boy was **sprier** (spryer) than the girl.

5th: One-syllable adjectives ending in a consonant with a single vowel preceding it

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
big	bigger	(the) biggest	not big; small / little	less big	(the) least big	big	bigness
fat ; fattish	fatter	(the) fattest	not fat; slim / thin	less fat	(the) least fat	fatly	fatness
thin	thinner	(the) thinnest	not thin; thick / fat	less thin	(the) least thin	thinly	thinness
sad	sadder	(the) saddest	not sad; happy / joyous	less sad	(the) least sad	sadly	sadness
red ; reddish	redder	(the) reddest	not red	less red	(the) least red	-	redness; (vb: redden)

Examples and useful phrases: the bird is **not big**, it is **less big** than I thought; a **fat** man came in. the man is **fat**; the car is **less red** than I wanted; she had **the reddest** hair I have ever seen; th scarf has a **reddish** tone; he was **not so sad** when he heard that he was not invited to the party; the **thin** girl won a gold medal; the paper is **too thin**.

6th: Two-syllable adjectives ending in “e”

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
fickle	fickler	(the) ficklest	not fickle; reliable	less fickle	(the) least fickle	-	fickleness
handsome	handsomer	(the) handsomest	not handsome; ugly	less handsome	(the) least handsome	handsomely	handsomeness
polite	politer	(the) politest	not polite; rude	less polite	(the) least polite	politely	politeness

Examples and useful phrases: the government seem to be driven by **fickleness**; the Bretagne is a **very handsome** landscape; yester I have seen a **pretty handsome** lad; she was the **politest** lady I ever came across.

7th: Two-syllable adjectives ending in “y”

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
bumpy	bumpier	(the) bumpiest	not bumpy; smooth	less bumpy	(the) least bumpy	bumpily	bumpiness
heavy	heavier	(the) heaviest	not heavy; light	less heavy	(the) least heavy	heavily	heaviness
icy	icier	(the) iciest	not icy	less icy	(the) least icy	icily	iciness
easy	easier	(the) easiest	not easy; difficult	less easy	(the) least easy	easily	ease
dirty	dirtier	(the) dirtiest	not dirty; clean	less dirty	(the) least dirty	dirtily	dirtiness
happy	happier	(the) happiest	not happy; sad	less happy	(the) least happy	happily	happiness
pretty	prettier	(the) prettiest	not pretty; ugly	less pretty	(the) least pretty	pretty	prettiness
shiny	shinier	(the) shiniest	not shiny; dull	less shiny	(the) least shiny	-	shininess
sticky	stickier	(the) stickiest	not sticky; slippery	less sticky	(the) least sticky	stickily	stickiness; sticker
tiny	tinier	(the) tiniest	not tiny; huge	less tiny	(the) least tiny	tinily	tininess
ugly	uglier	(the) ugliest	not ugly; pretty	less ugly	(the) least ugly	uglily	ugliness; (verb: uglify)

Examples and useful phrases: driving on a **bumpy** road is difficult; the foreign army was **heavily** beaten; the **icy** road was dangerous to drive on; that task is **less easy** than expected, in fact, it is quite **difficult**; the **least dirty** building in the city is the governor's palace; the birth of our child was **the happiest** moment in our life; the situation is **pretty** bad; this is **the prettiest** flower I have ever bought; the king's crown is **the shiniest** piece of jewellery; the blue **sticker** is **very sticky**, but the red one is **not so sticky** and fell off; we had a **tiny** girl in our class; spiders are considered **ugly**; the **ugly** beetle frightened the girls; this is **not an ugly** painting; this painting is **not ugly**; she played the flute **easily**; she played the flute with **ease**.

8th: Two-syllable adjectives ending in “le”, or “ow”

Neutral Adjective	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
able	abler	(the) ablest	not able; unable	less able	(the) least able	-	ability
gentle	gentler	(the) gentlest	not gentle; rude	less gentle	(the) least gentle	gently	gentleness
simple	simpler	(the) simplest	not simple; difficult	less simple	(the) least simple	simply	simplicity
hollow	hollower	(the) hollowest	not hollow; solid	less hollow	(the) least hollow	hollowly	hollowness; hole
narrow	narrower	(the) narrowest	not narrow; wide	less narrow	(the) least narrow	narrowly	narrowness
shallow	shallower	(the) shallowest	not shallow; deep	less shallow	(the) least shallow	-	shallowness

Examples and useful phrases: he is **unable** to take her phonecall; James proved to be **more than able**; she is the **gentlest** creature on Earth; he desperately tried to change his **hollow** existence; the backdoor is **narrower than** the front door; Alice walked through the **shallower** part of the river; learning a new language is **least simple**, because it requires a **strong** will.

9th: Adjectives that have two possible forms of comparison

Neutral	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
clever	cleverer / more clever	(the) cleverest / most clever	not clever; stupid	less clever	(the) least clever	cleverly	cleverness
common	commoner / more common	(the) commonest / most common	not common	less common	(the) least common	commonly	commonness
likely	likelier / more likely	(the) likeliest / most likely	not likely	less likely	(the) least likely	likely	likelihood; likeliness
pleasant	pleasanter / more pleasant	(the) pleasantest / most pleasant	not pleasant	less pleasant	(the) least pleasant	pleasantly	pleasantness
polite	politer / more polite	(the) politest / most polite	not polite; impolite	less polite	(the) least polite	politely	politeness
quiet	quieter / more quiet	(the) quietest / most quiet	not quiet	less quiet	(the) least quiet	quietly	quietness
simple	simpler / more simple	(the) simplest / most simple	not simple; difficult	less simple	(the) least simple	simply	simplicity
stupid	stupider / more stupid	(the) stupidest / most stupid	not stupid; clever	less stupid	(the) least stupid	stupidly	stupidity
sure	surer / more sure	(the) surest / most sure	not sure	less sure	(the) least sure	surely	sureness

Examples and useful phrases: the bank robbery was **cleverly** conducted; the **most common** things are sometimes most **pleasant**; a landing on Mars seem to be **unlikely** in the next five years; there is **no likelihood** of success; we had made a **pleasant** experience; the lady is **pleasant**; the boy was **impolite**; the waiter was **not polite**; **polite** people have success; they listened to the speaker **quietly**; it is a **quiet** day today; being **polite** ought to be **the simplest** thing; he is the **most stupid** man; he acted **stupidly**; you **surely** will stay, won't you?

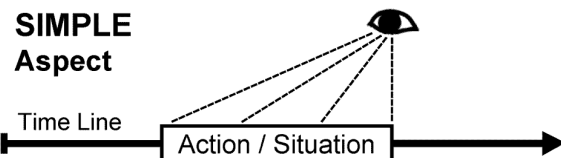
10th: Two or more syllable adjectives that build comparisons only with “more, most, less, least”

Neutral	Comparative	Superlative	Opposite Adjective	Opposite Comp.	Opposite Superl.	Adverb	Selection of Nouns
beautiful	more beautiful	(the) most beautiful	not beautiful; ugly	less beautiful	(the) least beautiful	beautifully	beauty; beau, belle
colourful	more colourful	(the) most colourful	not colourful; colourless	less colourful	(the) least colourful	colourfully	-
complete	more complete	(the) most complete	not complete; incomplete	less complete	(the) least complete	completely	completeness
generous	more generous	(the) most generous	not generous; ungenerous	less generous	(the) least generous	generously	generosity

Examples and useful phrases: the flowers were arranged **beautifully**; Alice's painting is **most colourful**, while Jane's creation was **less colourful**, the city was **completely** destroyed; the destruction was **most complete**; the cake was **most delicious**; thank you, you are **most generous**; he was **most ungenerous**; and **most importantly**, we achieved our goals.

LORD HENFIELD'S Interpretation Diagrams and Rotation Tables with Questions and Answers (The Simple Aspect and the Perfect Aspect, with all 4 times and all Modals)

There are two main ways to use an Adjective in English: either before a Noun "*this is **my** book*", or after a Noun "*this book is **mine***". The second form is a highly effective technique that can describe opposite qualities of an attribute without changing the Adjective itself: "beautiful" just becomes "**not** beautiful", instead of "ugly". This technique goes much further: By using the Linking Verb "to be" we can even use Participles (written, cooked ...), Pronouns (mine yours ...), Adverbs (here there, today, now ...), Names or any Nouns (a / the / no box, an apple, money ...), Measure words (a bit / lot / few / little / pile ...). Describing becomes easy. We use only the Simple Aspect and the Perfect Aspect but not their Continuous forms. Notice: Instead of **from the UK.**, we can use **of the UK.** For the Subject "it" in our examples, we can use any other Subject.



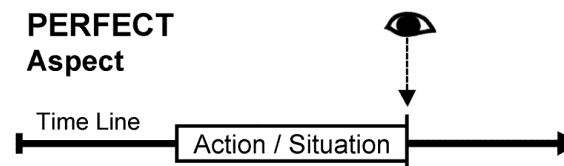
View on an entire action or situation

Is it (not)
Will it (not) be
Shall it (not) be
Can it (not) be
May it (not) be
Must it (not) be
Was it (not)
Would it (not) be
Should it (not) be
Could it (not) be
Might it (not) be
Ought it (not) be

mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs
Linda's, Jeremy's, Mr Blake's, Ms Blake's
yellow, red, blue, orange, light / dark green
good, better, the best; bad, worse, the worst
not (so) good, less good / better; okay, fine
right, wrong, pleasant, disgusting, revolting
(too) much / less, anything else, hand-made
sensible, more sensible, the most sensible
not sensible, less sensible, the least sensible
British, US.-American, Chinese, German
from the UK. / the US. / China / Germany

It is (not)
It will (not) be
It shall (not) be
It can (not) be
It may (not) be
It must (not) be
It was (not)
It would (not) be
It should (not) be
It could (not) be
It might (not) be
It ought (not) to be

mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs
Linda's, Jeremy's, Mr Blake's, Ms Blake's
yellow, red, blue, orange, light / dark green
good, better, the best; bad, worse, the worst
not (so) good, less good / better; okay, fine
right, wrong, pleasant, disgusting, revolting
(too) much / less, anything else, hand-made
sensible, more sensible, the most sensible
not sensible, less sensible, the least sensible
British, US.-American, Chinese, German
from the UK. / the US. / China / Germany



View on the final point of an action or situation

Has it (not)
Will it (not) have
Shall it (not) have
Can it (not) have
May it (not) have
Must it (not) have
Had it (not)
Would it (not) have
Should it (not) have
Could it (not) have
Might it (not) have
Ought it (not) have

been

mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs
Linda's, Jeremy's, Mr Blake's, Ms Blake's
yellow, red, blue, orange, light / dark green
good, better, the best; bad, worse, the worst
not (so) good, less good / better; okay, fine
right, wrong, pleasant, disgusting, revolting
(too) much / less, anything else, hand-made
sensible, more sensible, the most sensible
not sensible, less sensible, the least sensible
British, US.-American, Chinese, German
from the UK. / the US. / China / Germany

It has (not)
It will (not) have
It shall (not) have
It can (not) have
It may (not) have
It must (not) have
It had (not)
It would (not) have
It should (not) have
It could (not) have
It might (not) have
It ought (not) to have

been

mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs
Linda's, Jeremy's, Mr Blake's, Ms Blake's
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British, US.-American, Chinese, German
from the UK. / the US. / China / Germany

THE ADVERB

An Adverb is a word that explains or describes a Verb, Adjective, another Adverb, Determiner, Noun phrase, clause, or sentence. Adverbs typically express manner, place, time, frequency, degree, level of certainty. They answer questions such as how?, in what way?, when?, where?, and to what extent? This is the so-called adverbial function, and may be performed by single words (Adverbs) or by multi-word expressions (adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses).

Functions

The English word Adverb comes (through French) from Latin **adverbium**, from ad- ("to" or "plus"), verbum ("word", "verb"), and the nominal suffix -ium. The term implies that the principal function of Adverbs is to act as modifiers of Verbs or Verb phrases. An Adverb used in this way may provide information about the manner, place, time, frequency, certainty, or other circumstances of the activity denoted by the verb or Verb phrase. Some examples:

- She sang **loudly** (*loudly modifies the verb sang, indicating the manner of singing*)
- We left it **here** (*here modifies the verb phrase left it, indicating place*)
- I worked **yesterday** (*yesterday modifies the verb worked, indicating time*)
- You **often** make mistakes (*often modifies the verb phrase make mistakes, indicating frequency*)

- He **undoubtedly** did it (*undoubtedly modifies the verb phrase did it, indicating certainty*)

Adverbs can also be used as modifiers of adjectives, and of other adverbs, often to indicate degree. Examples:

- You are **quite** right (*the adverb quite modifies the adjective right*)
- She sang **very** loudly (*the adverb very modifies another adverb – loudly*)

They can also modify noun phrases, prepositional phrases, or whole clauses or sentences, as in the following examples:

- I bought **only** the fruit (*only modifies the noun phrase the fruit*)
- She drove us **almost** to the station (*almost modifies the prepositional phrase to the station*)
- **Certainly** we need to act (*certainly modifies the sentence as a whole*)

Adverbs are thus seen to perform a wide range of modifying functions. The major exception is the function of modifier of Nouns, which is performed instead by Adjectives (compare she sang loudly with her loud singing disturbed me; here the Verb sang is modified by the adverb loudly, whereas the Noun singing is modified by the Adjective loud). However, as seen above, Adverbs may modify Noun phrases, and so the two functions may sometimes be superficially very similar:

- **Even** camels need to drink
- **Even** numbers are divisible by two

The word even in the first sentence is an Adverb, since it is an "external" modifier, modifying camels as a Noun phrase (compare even these camels ...), whereas the word even in the second sentence is an Adjective, since it is an "internal" modifier, modifying numbers as a Noun (compare these even numbers ...). It is nonetheless possible for certain Adverbs to modify a noun; in English the adverb follows the Noun in such cases,[1] as in:

- The people **here** are friendly
- The show features dances **galore**
- There is a shortage **internationally** of protein for animal feeds

Adverbs can sometimes be used as predicative expressions; in English this applies especially to Adverbs of location:

- *Your seat is **there**.*

When the function of an Adverb is performed by an expression consisting of more than one word, it is called an adverbial phrase or adverbial clause, or simply an adverbial.

Position of Adverbs

Adverbs in English enjoy a relatively great freedom to place them in a clause or sentence. As a general rule, most native speakers place Adverbs at the end of a clause, right behind the "Direct Object".

Adverbs of Location or Place

(for example: here, there, behind, above) These Adverbs are put behind the Direct Object or the Verb.

Subject	Verb(s)	Direct Object	Adverb
I	didn't see	him	here.
He	stayed		behind.

Adverbs of Time

(for example: already, lately, still, tomorrow, early, now, soon, yesterday, finally, recently, today, yet, then) Adverbs of time are usually put at the end of the clause or sentence.

Subject	Verb(s)	Indirect Object	Direct Object	Time
I	will tell	you	the story	tomorrow.

But if you really want to put emphasis on the time, you can also put the Adverb of time at the beginning of the clause or sentence.

Time	Subject	Verb(s)	Indirect Object	Direct Object
Tomorrow	I	will tell	you	the story.

Adverbs of Manner

(for example: **accurately, beautifully, expertly, professionally, anxiously, carefully, greedily, quickly, badly, cautiously, loudly, quietly, slowly, awfully**) Like Adverbs of place, these Adverbs are put behind the direct object (or behind the Verb if there's no direct object), right at the end of the clause or sentence.

Subject	Verb(s)	Direct Object	Adverb
He	drove	the car	carefully.
He	drove		carefully.

Some common manner Adverbs have the same form as Adjectives and they have similar meanings (e.g. *fast, right, wrong, straight, tight*).

Adjective	Adverb
<i>I was never a fast swimmer</i>	<i>Driving fast is dangerous</i>
<i>All of your answers were wrong.</i>	<i>People always spell my name wrong.</i>
<i>Is that the right time?</i>	<i>That builder never does anything right!</i>
<i>My hair is straight.</i>	<i>Let's go straight to the airport.</i>

Degree Adverbs (SLIGHTLY) and Focusing Adverbs (GENERALLY)

Degree and focusing Adverbs are the most common types of modifiers of Adjectives and other Adverbs. Degree Adverbs express degrees of qualities, properties, states, conditions and relations. Focusing Adverbs point to something.

Adverbs of Degree

(for example: *absolutely, a (little) bit, a lot, almost, awfully, completely, enough, entirely, extremely, fairly, highly, lots, perfectly, pretty, quite, rather, remarkably, slightly, somewhat, terribly, too, totally, utterly, very.*) Examples of usage:

*Mary will be staying **a bit longer**.* (a bit longer = for a little more time)

*It all happened **pretty quickly**.*

***Actually**, she was **quite** surprised they came.*

*The price is £3.52 if you want to be **totally** accurate.*

Focusing Adverbs

(for example: *especially, generally, just, largely, mainly, only, particularly, simply.*) Examples of usage:

*I **just** wanted to ask you what you thought.*

*I would not **particularly** like to move to a modern house.*

Evaluative Adverbs (SURPRISINGLY) and Viewpoint Adverbs (personally)

We put some Adverbs outside the clause. They modify the whole sentence or utterance. Evaluative and viewpoint Adverbs are good examples of this:

*The electric car, **surprisingly**, does not really offer any advantages over petrol cars.* (evaluative)

***Personally**, I think the show was great.* (viewpoint)

Linking Adverbs (THEN, HOWEVER)

Linking Adverbs show a relationship between two clauses or sentences (e.g. a sequence in time, cause and effect, contrast

between two things): *I left my house in the morning **then** [sequence] I went to pick up Ruby at her house. We talked until the early hours [cause] and **consequently** [effect] I overslept the next morning.* (the result of the late night is that I was late the next morning) *The sun will be shining in France. **However** [contrast], heavy rain is expected in Spain.*

Attention: We can use "then" and "consequently" to join clauses or sentences. We usually use "but", not "however" to connect two clauses in the same sentence: There was no room for them **but** they got on the train. There was no room for them. **However**, they got on the train.

Adverbs of Frequency

(The most common Adverbs of Frequency are: **always, often, sometimes, seldom, never**) Adverbs of frequency are put directly before the Main Verb. If 'be' is the Main Verb and there is no Helper Verb, Frequency Adverbs are put behind 'be'. Is there a Helper Verb, however, Frequency Adverbs are put before 'be'.

Subject	Auxiliary / to be	Adverb	Main Verb	Object, place or time
I		always	go swimming	in the evenings.
He	doesn't	often	play	tennis.
We	are	sometimes		here in summer.
They		seldom	go	to the theatre
I	have	never	been	abroad.

Adverbs of Frequency tell us how often an action takes place or how often an event occurs. Now, a funny thing can be seen below, namely how some authors of English School textbooks try to translate the meaning of Frequency Adverbs in percentage, just as this one:

Adverb	Frequency
always	(100%)
almost always	(99%)
usually	(80%)
often	(60%)
sometimes	(40%)
occasionally	(30%)
seldom	(20%)
hardly ever	(1%)
never	(0%)

As intriguing this idea seem to be, it is unrealistic and utter nonsense quite simply because none of our children ever learn *Frequency Adverbs* in connexion with such a percentage table. Adverbs, just like any other "describing words", are learnt and used in a very individual way. Their usage depend on social, regional, and educational background, and therefore much more on personal preference than logic. The word "often", for instance, would be given a much higher rate of percentage than "usually" by many native speakers, whilst words such as "occasionally" or "hardly ever" would not be used by some of us native speakers at all.

Between "always" at the top of frequency and "never" at the bottom of frequency, we surely can figure out the middle, which is "sometimes". All the other expressions between the **middle** (sometimes) and the top

(always) as well as the **bottom** (never) are in a kind of no-man's-land. The following table in 5 stages (just like the 5 fingers on a hand) gives you a fairly good idea about which *Frequency Adverbs* have the same or a similar meaning. Look how rich English with all its expressions is:

1.	A. always , ever, forever, evermore, constantly, continually, eternally, unceasingly, everlastingly. B. every time, at all times, without exception, in any case; never-ending.
2.	A. often , usually, normally, almost always, nearly always; mostly, mainly, commonly, generally, routinely, regularly, frequently, repeatedly, habitually, oftentimes. B. almost every time, nearly all the time, much of the time, over and over again, time and again, time after time; as a rule, as is the custom, as is usual, by and large, for the most part, on the whole, most often, in the main, at regular intervals; oft, oftentimes, much.
3.	A. sometimes , occasionally. B. on occasion, at times, from time to time, every now and then, now and again, off and on, once in a while, sometime.
4.	A. seldom , rarely, almost never, scarcely ever, hardly ever. B. not often, occasionally, infrequently, once in a blue moon.
5.	A. never . B. at no time, not ever.

Each stage has an "A-group" which consists of Frequency Adverbs that you can place **directly before the main Verb** of a clause; the Frequency Adverbs of the "B-group" can stand only **after the Direct Object** at the end of a clause!

If you, as a teacher, really want to simplify all our expressions in order to make learning easier, you can teach these 5 Adverbs of Frequency for beginners in a **"Rule of Hand"**: 1. always (thumb), 2. often (pointer), 3. sometimes (middle finger), 4. seldom (ring finger), 5. never (small finger). This order of frequency is always correct and illustrates vividly how often we use either one of those Adverbs or the corresponding fingers of our hand.

The basic rule is that *Frequency Adverbs* come before the Main Verb but after the Present and Past forms of the Verb "to be" (am, are, is, was, were). In the case of tenses that use a *Helper Verb*, we put the Adverb between the Helper Verb and the Main Verb. The following tables makes that a bit more clearly. We show the position of the *Frequency Adverbs* of in affirmative, negative, interrogative, and imperative sentences.

Affirmative Sentences				
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Auxiliary</i>	<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Main Verb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
The side effects		usually	go	away after a few hours.
I		sometimes	have	trouble accessing my favourite web site.
Oscar Wilde		often	went	to Brighton for the summer.
Kurt	has	never	been	a fan of SUVs.
Emma	has	always	wanted	to own a restaurant.
I	will	always	be	grateful to you.

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

Affirmative Sentences with "to be"			
<i>Subject</i>	<i>"to be"</i>	<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
The bus	is	usually	on time.
Some people	are	never	satisfied.

Negative Sentences				
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Auxiliary</i>	<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Main Verb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
Suzanne	doesn't	usually	get	involved in politics.
It	doesn't	often	snow	here at Christmas.
I	don't	ever	download	music from the Internet.

Negative Sentences with "to be"			
<i>Subject</i>	<i>"to be" + not</i>	<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
Iron supplements	aren't	usually	necessary for men.
Professor Jackson	isn't	often	at a loss for words.

Interrogative Sentences				
<i>Auxiliary</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Main Verb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
Does	Kimberly	usually	have	breakfast at home?
Do	you	always	read	the fine print?
Did	Chris	ever	play	basketball?
Don't	you	ever	get	tired?

Interrogative Sentences with "to be"			
<i>"to be"</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
Are	you	always	so cheerful in the morning?
Isn't	Ted	usually	here by eight o'clock?

Imperative Sentences		
<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
Always	do	your best!
Never	forget	this rule!
Always	be	truthful!

Short Answers with Frequency Adverbs		
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Adv. of Frequency</i>	<i>Helper Verb or Modal Verb</i>
A: Will you ever change? B: I	never	will !
A: Has Shirley ever been to Austria? B: She	never	has !
A: Do they ever study together? B: They	sometimes	do !
A: Is Olivia ever wrong? B: She	seldom	is !

Distribution of Frequency Adverbs by Sentence Type				
<i>Adv. of Frequency</i>	<i>Affirmative</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Interrogative</i>	<i>Imperative</i>
always	X	X	X	X
often / usually	X	X	X	
sometimes/occasionally	X		X	
rarely/seldom/hardly ever/scarcely ever*	X			
never*	X			X
ever		X	X	

* Although used in sentences with affirmative form, the meaning is negative.

Distribution of Frequency Adverbs by Sentence Position			
<i>Frequency Adverb</i>	<i>Initial</i>	<i>Medial</i>	<i>Final</i>
always		X	
usually	X	X	
often		X	X
sometimes / occasionally	X	X	X
rarely / seldom / hardly ever / scarcely ever**	X	X	
never**	X	X	
ever		X	

** If placed in initial position, Subject-Verb inversion occurs. See below for examples.

Subject-Verb Inversion				
<i>Negative Adverb</i>	<i>Auxiliary</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Main Verb</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
"Never	did	I	think	I would see my book in print".
"Seldom	have	we	had	a professor with such enthusiasm".
"Scarcely	had	he	finished	speaking when the door of the queen's apartment opened...."

In general, Adverbs of Frequency go **before most Verbs**, but **after Helper Verbs**. Look at these examples:

Adverbs with Normal Verbs

He *usually* **takes** his son to the park on Sundays.
I *sometimes* **eat** with my sister.
She *never* **comes** on time.
We *almost never* **take** lunch to work with us.

Adverbs with Helper Verbs and Modal Verbs

He **is** *usually* at the park with his son.
I **was** *sometimes* angry with my sister when I was young.
She **will** *never* be on time.
We **have** *almost always* seen her on the weekends.

The Verbs **have**, **has** and **had** are Helper Verbs only when used with *Past Participles*:

I **have** *always* **played** baseball on Saturday afternoons.
She **has** *never* **been** to France.
We **had** *always* **spoken** Spanish before we moved to England.

The Verbs **have**, **has** and **had** are normal verbs when not used with *Past Participles*:

I *always* **have** trouble with my math homework.
She *never* **has** fun at the beach.
We *always* **had** to clean the house after we had a party.

The Verbs **do**, **does**, and **did** are Helper Verbs only when used in questions or negatives:

Did you finish the project on time?
He **didn't** like the dinner, so he **didn't** eat it.

In other cases, **do**, **does** and **did** are normal Verbs:

He *never* **does** his homework for that class.
I *always* **did** the dishes when I was young.
They *sometimes* **do** their office work at home.

In questions, the *Adverb of Frequency* goes after the Subject:

Did you *always* do the dishes when you were younger?
Is he *often* absent from class?
Are you *usually* on time for work?

The Adverb *ever* is used in questions to mean "at any time" in your life:

Will she *ever* finish this paper?
Has he *ever* been to France?
Can you *ever* forgive me for what I've done to you?
Do you *ever* go to scary movies, or only romantic ones?

The Adverbs ***sometimes***, ***often*** and ***usually*** can also be used as the beginning of a sentence.

Sometimes[,] I was angry with my sister when I was young.
Often, I eat with my sister.
Usually, I am at the park with my son.
(You do not have to put a comma after *sometimes*, but you may.)

Normally, the other Adverbs do not sound correct at the beginning of a normal sentence.

Wrong **Seldom* I go to church. *Always he eats alone.
Right I *seldom* go to church. He always eats alone.

Wrong **Never* I eat meat.
Right I *never* eat meat.

Wrong **Always* she is in church.
Right She is *always* in church.

If the *Helper Verb* is negative, the *Adverb of Frequency* might go before or after it (and sometimes in either position). Each case is different and must be learned from examples:

correct We *usually* **do not** take our dog with us to the store.
correct We **do not** *usually* take our dog with us to the store.

wrong *We *always* **cannot** understand him. (Say, "We can never understand him.")

correct We **cannot** *always* understand him.

correct We *often* **cannot** understand the teacher.

correct We **cannot** *often* understand the teacher.

correct He **is not** *always* on time for class.

wrong *He *always* **is not** on time for class. (Say, "He is never on time for class.")

(When in doubt, it is probably safer putting the Adverb *after* the negative Helper Verb.)

Some other Adverbs follow the same position rules as the Adverbs of Frequency.

The most common ones are: *probably*, *most likely* (=probably), *all*, *both*, *also*:

He *probably* **found** the scowdriver in the garage.

Julia *most likely* **speaks** fluent Italian.

They *all* **enjoyed** themselves at the game.

We *both* **know** the general manager.

My mother sings, and she *also* **dances**.

I am probably not going to be on time tomorrow.

John will most likely take the train to York.

You must all come on time for class every day.

They can both cook.

She's a singer, and she's also a dancer.

The words *all* and *both* can also be part of a Subject:

All of the students **came** today. (All the students came today.)

OR The students *all* **came** today.

Both of my parents **are** dead. (Both my parents are dead.)

OR My parents *are both* dead.

THE ENGLISH NOUN

A Noun (from Latin *nomen*, literally meaning "name") is a word that functions as the name of some specific thing or set of things, such as living creatures, objects, places, actions, qualities, states of existence, or ideas. In English, Nouns can be Singular or Plural. Nouns form the largest English word class. Some examples of Nouns in English are: time, people, way, year, government, day, world, life, work, part, number, house, system, company, end, party, information.

Linguistically, a Noun is a member of a large, open Part of Speech whose members can occur as the main word in the Subject of a clause, the Object of a Verb, or the Object of a Preposition.

Lexical categories (parts of speech) are defined in terms of the ways in which their members combine with other kinds of expressions. The syntactic rules for Nouns differ from language to language. In English, Nouns are those words which can occur with Articles and attributive Adjectives and can function as the head of a Noun phrase.

Every language in the world has Nouns, but they are not always used in the same ways. They also can have different properties in different languages. For example, in Chinese languages, Nouns usually do not change for Singular and Plural, and there is no word for "the". Nouns often need a word called an Article or Determiner (like **the** or **that**). These words usually do not go with other kinds of words like Verbs or Adverbs. (For example, people do not also describe Nouns). In English, there are more Nouns than any other kind of word.

Why English Is So Hard - A Poem

We'll begin with a **box**, and the plural is **boxes**,
But the plural of **ox** is **oxen**, not **oxes**.
Then one fowl is **goose**, but two are called **geese**,
Yet the plural of **moose** should never be **meese**.

You may find a lone **mouse** or a whole lot of **mice**,
But the plural of **house** is **houses**, not **hice**.
If the plural of **man** is always called **men**,
Why shouldn't the plural of **pan** be called **pen**?

The **cow** in the plural may be **cows** or **kine**,
But the plural of **vow** is **vows**, not **vine**.
And I speak of a **foot**, and you show me your **feet**,
But I give you a **boot** – would a pair be called **beet**?

If one is a **tooth** and a whole set are **teeth**,
Why shouldn't the plural of **booth** be called **beeth**?
If the singular is **this** and the plural is **these**,
Should the plural of **kiss** be nicknamed **kese**?

Then one may be **that**, and three would be **those**,
Yet **hat** in the plural would never be **hose**,
We speak of a **brother** and also of **brethren**,
But though we say **mother**, we never say **methren**.

Then the masculine pronouns are **he**, **his** and **him**,
But imagine the feminine: **she**, **shis** and **shim**!
So our English, I think you will agree,
Is the trickiest language you ever did see!

This little poem by an unknown writer clearly illustrates what great difficulties even we native speakers have when we learn English, our own language. Mind: irregularities are a burden for any learner!

Properties of the Noun

There are many common Suffixes used to form Nouns from other Nouns or from other types of words, such as *-age* (as in shrinkage), *-hood* (as in childhood), and so on, although many Nouns are base forms not containing any such Suffix (such as cat, grass, France). Nouns are also often created by conversion of Verbs or Adjectives, as with the words talk and reading (the coldness, the reading). Unlike in many related languages, English Nouns do not have a grammatical gender (although many Nouns refer specifically to male or female persons or animals, like mother - father, bull - cow, tiger - tigress).

A grammatical distinction is often made between *Countable Nouns* such as clock and city, and *Uncountable Nouns* such as milk and water. Some Nouns can function to be either countable or uncountable such the word "wine" (This is a good wine, I prefer red wine). Countable Nouns generally have singular and Plural forms. In most cases the Plural is formed from the Singular by adding *-[e]s* (as in dogs, bushes), although there are also irregular forms (woman / women, foot / feet, etc.), including cases where the two forms are identical (sheep, series).

English Nouns are not marked for Case as they are in some languages, but they have possessive forms, which we also call "genitive", formed by the addition of *-s* (as in John's, children's), or just an apostrophe (with no change in pronunciation) in the case of *-[e]s* Plurals and sometimes other words ending with *-s* (the dogs' owners, Jesus' love). More generally, the ending can be applied to

Noun phrases (as in *the man saw yesterday's sunset*). The genitive form can be used either as a so-called "determiner" (*John's* cat) or as a Noun phrase (*John's is the one next to Jane's*).

Regular And Irregular Plural Forms

The Plural in English has an *-s* as Suffix to the end of most Nouns. Regular English Regular Plural forms fall into three classes, depending upon the sound that ends the Singular form. These rules are sufficient to describe most English Plurals:

1. Where a Singular Noun ends in a any kind of *s-*, *sh-* or *ch-*sound, the Plural is formed by adding *-es*, or *-s* if the Singular already ends in *-e*: kiss-kisses, phase-phases, dish-dishes, massage-massages, witch-witches, judge-judges.
2. When the Singular form ends in a *voiceless Consonant* (other than any kind of *s*-sound), the plural is formed by adding an *-s*: lap-laps, cat-cats, clock-clocks, cuff-cuffs, death-deaths.
3. For all other words (as words ending in a vowel or voiced Consonant which is not similar to an *s*-sound) the Regular Plural adds an *-s*: boy-boys, girl-girls, chair-chairs.

There are some exceptions in the spelling of certain Plurals. All following examples can be called "*Irregular Plural forms*". In many cases, native speakers use different spellings ignoring rules imposed by grammarians. Here we really must ask ourselves if it makes sense to learn too many rules. Let us look at a few of them:

With Nouns ending in **o** preceded by a Consonant, the Plural in many cases is spelled by adding **-es**: hero-heroes (or heroes), potato-potatoes, volcano-volcanoes (or volcanos).

However many Nouns of foreign origin, including almost all Italian loanwords, add only **-s**: canto-cantos, hetero-heteros, photo-photos, zero-zeros, piano-pianos, portico-porticos, pro-pros, quarto (paper size)-quartos, kimono-kimonos.

Plurals Of Nouns In -y

Nouns ending in a **y** preceded by a consonant usually drop the **y** and add **-ies**: city-cities, cherry-cherries, ferry-ferries, lady-ladies, sky-skies.

Words ending in **quy** also follow this pattern: soliloquy-soliloquies

Anyway, proper Nouns and names of people form their Plurals by simply adding **-s**: the two Kennedys, there are three Harrys in our office. Many place names have two forms: **Germanys** and **Germanies** are both used, and **Sicilies** and **Scillies** are the standard Plurals of **Sicily** and **Scilly**.

Other exceptions include lay-bys and stand-bys.

Words ending in a **y** preceded by a Vowel form their Plurals by adding **-s**: day-days, monkey-monkeys. However the Plural form (rarely used) of money is usually monies, although moneys is also found.

Near-Regular Plurals

In many voiceless **f-** and **th-**sounds stay voiceless, just a silent **-e** is added in this case if the singular does not already end with **-e**: bath-baths, mouth-mouths, calf-calves, leaf-leaves, knife-knives, life-lives. But there is one word where **-s** is voiced in the plural when we put **-es** to it: house-houses

Many Nouns ending in **-f** or **-th** (including all words where the **f**-sound is represented by **gh** or **ph** in writing) nevertheless keep their voiceless consonant: moth-moths, proof-proofs.

And, of course, some can have either form: dwarf-dwarfs (or dwarves), hoof-hoofs (or hoooves), elf-elfs (or elves), staff-staffs (or staves), turf-turfs (or turves) (the latter form is rare)

Unfortunately, the English Noun still has many **Irregular Pluralform**. Reason: We just keep the forms of the original languages. Bad news for the students: The forms must be learnt word by word. Here are some Lists of different Plural Forms:

Irregular Plural Forms

Singular	Plural
addendum	addenda
alga	algae
alumna	alumnae
alumnus	alumni

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analysis	analyses
antenna	antennas, antennae
apparatus	apparatuses
appendix	appendices, appendixes
axis	axes
bacillus	bacilli
bacterium	bacteria
basis	bases
beau	beaux
bison	bison
buffalo	buffalos, buffaloes
bureau	bureaus
bus	busses, buses
cactus	cactuses, cacti
calf	calves
child	children
corps	corps
corpus	corpora, corpuses
crisis	crises
criterion	criteria
curriculum	curricula
datum	data
deer	deer
die	dice
dwarf	dwarfs, dwarves
diagnosis	diagnoses
echo	echoes

elf	elves
ellipsis	ellipses
embargo	embargoes
emphasis	emphases
erratum	errata
fireman	firemen
fish	fish, fishes
focus	foci
foot	feet
formula	formulas
fungus	fungi, funguses
genus	genera
goose	geese
half	halves
hero	heroes
hippopotamus	hippopotami, hippopotamuses
hoof	hoofs, hooves
hypothesis	hypotheses
index	indices, indexes
knife	knives
leaf	leaves
life	lives
loaf	loaves
louse	lice
man	men
matrix	matrices
means	means

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medium	media
memorandum	memoranda
millennium	millenniums, millennia
moose	moose
mosquito	mosquitoes
mouse	mice
nebula	nebulae, nebulas
neurosis	neuroses
nucleus	nuclei
oasis	oases
octopus	octopi, octopuses
ovum	ova
ox	oxen
paralysis	paralyses
parenthesis	parentheses
person	people
phenomenon	phenomena
potato	potatoes
radius	radii, radiuses
scarf	scarfs, scarves
self	selves
series	series
sheep	sheep
shelf	shelves
scissors	scissors
species	species
stimulus	stimuli

stratum	strata
syllabus	syllabi, syllabuses
symposium	symposia, symposiums
synthesis	syntheses
synopsis	synopses
tableau	tableaux
that	those
thesis	theses
thief	thieves
this	these
tomato	tomatoes
tooth	teeth
torpedo	torpedoes
vertebra	vertebrae
veto	veto
vita	vitae
watch	watches
wife	wives
wolf	wolves
woman	women
zero	zeros, zeroes

Plural Nouns by adding -s

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
ant	ants	banana	bananas
bicycle	bicycles	cow	cows

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daughter	daughters	egg	eggs
flower	flowers	grape	grapes
human	humans	jug	jugs
king	kings	lock	locks
magazine	magazines	mongoose	mongooses
nose	noses	orange	oranges
picture	pictures	rose	roses
spoonful	spoonfuls	toy	toys
vase	vases	well	wells

***Plural Nouns by adding -es
to Nouns ending in -ch, -s, -sh, -ss, -x, and -z***

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
address	addresses	batch	batches
beach	beaches	boss	bosses
box	boxes	branch	branches
brush	brushes	bus	buses
buzz	buzzes	catch	catches
church	churches	class	classes
clutch	clutches	coach	coaches
complex	complexes	cross	crosses
dish	dishes	dress	dresses
eyelash	eyelashes	flash	flashes
fish	fishes	fox	foxes
gas	gases	glass	glasses
inch	inches	itch	itches

kiss	kisses	lens	lenses
lunch	lunches	match	matches
minus	minuses	patch	patches
peach	peaches	plus	pluses
prefix	prefixes	prospectus	prospectuses
quiz	quizzes	six	sixes
slash	slashes	speech	speeches
suffix	suffixes	tax	taxes
thrush	thrushes	virus	viruses
watch	watches	wish	wishes

Plural Nouns by adding -s to Nouns ending in -o

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
bamboo	bamboos	casino	casinos
commando	commandos	disco	discos
duo	duos	dynamo	dynamos
ghetto	ghettos	kangaroo	kangaroos
kilo	kilos	photo	photos
piano	pianos	radio	radios
ratio	ratios	scenario	scenarios
silo	silos	shampoo	shampoos
solo	solos	stereo	stereos
studio	studios	tattoo	tattoos
trio	trios	video	videos
zero	zeros	zoo	zoos

Plural Nouns by adding –es to Nouns ending in -o

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
buffalo	buffaloes	echo	echoes
hero	heroes	mosquito	mosquitoes
negro	negroes	potato	potatoes
tomato	tomatoes	torpedo	torpedoes
veto	vetoed	volcano	volcanoes

Plural Nouns by adding –s or –es to Nouns ending in -o

Singular	Plural
banjo	banjos, banjoes
cargo	cargos, cargoes
halo	halos, haloes
mango	mango, mangoes
motto	mottos, mottoes
volcano	volcanos, volcanoes
archipelago	archipelagos, archipelagoes
desperado	desperados, desperadoes
lasso	lassos, lassoes
memento	mementos, mementoes
tornado	tornados, tornadoes
zero	zeros, zeroes

***Plural Nouns by changing –y
into –ies if a Noun ends in a Consonant before the -y***

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
army	armies	baby	babies
beauty	beauties	berry	berries
cherry	cherries	city	cities
country	countries	cry	cries
curry	curries	diary	diaries
discovery	discoveries	duty	duties
enemy	enemies	fairy	fairies
family	families	lady	ladies
library	libraries	nappy	nappies
sky	skies	spy	spies
story	stories	strawberry	strawberries
territory	territories	theory	theories

***Plural Nouns by adding –s
if there is a Vowel before the -y***

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
alloy	alloys	bay	bays
boy	boys	chimney	chimneys
day	days	decoy	decoys
delay	delays	donkey	donkeys
guy	guys	jersey	jerseys
journey	journeys	joy	joys

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key	keys	kidney	kidneys
monkey	monkeys	play	plays
ray	rays	toy	toys
tray	trays	trolley	trolleys
valley	valleys	way	ways

Plural Nouns by changing –f or –fe into –ves

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
beef	beeves	loaf	loaves
calf	calves	self	selves
half	halves	sheaf	sheaves
housewife	housewives	shelf	shelves
knife	knives	thief	thieves
leaf	leaves	wife	wives
life	lives	wolf	wolves

Plural Nouns by adding –s to Nouns ending in –f or –fe

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
belief	beliefs	gulf	gulfs
bluff	bluffs	handcuff	handcuffs
chef	chefs	reef	reefs
chief	chiefs	roof	roofs
cliff	cliffs	safe	safes
giraffe	giraffes	sheriff	sheriffs

Plural Nouns by adding –s or changing –f into –ves

Singular	Plural
dwarf	dwarfs, dwarves
handkerchief	handkerchiefs, handkerchieves
hoof	hoofs, hooves
scarf	scarfs, scarves
turf	turfs, turves
wharf	wharfs, wharves

Plural Nouns by changing the Vowels

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
bacterium	bacteria	criterion	criteria
dormouse	dormice	foot	feet
goose	geese	louse	lice
man	men	mouse	mice*
phenomenon	phenomena	tooth	teeth
woman	women		

* For computer mouse, the plural is **mice** or **mouses**.

Plural Nouns by adding -en/-ren

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
child	children	ox	oxen

The Singular and Plural forms of some Nouns are the same

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
advice	advice	kennels	kennels
aircraft	aircraft	knowledge	knowledge
baggage	baggage	means	means
bison	bison	moose	moose
cod	cod	music	music
crossroads	crossroads	news	news
deer	deer	offspring	offspring
dice	dice	public	public
dozen	dozen	salmon	salmon
fish	fish**	scenery	scenery
furniture	furniture	series	series
grouse	grouse	sheep	sheep
gymnastics	gymnastics	species	species
headquarters	headquarters	staff	staff
information	information	swine	swine

** More than one fish of the same species. **Fishes** are the plural of more than one species of fish.

Singular and Plural forms of Compound Nouns

Singular	Plural
aide-de-camp	aides-de-camp
attorney-general	attorneys-general

brother-in-law	brothers-in-law
bystander	bystanders
commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
court martial	courts martial
cupful	cupfuls
father-in-law	fathers-in-law
general staff	general staff
go-between	go-betweens
governor-general	governors-general
handful	handfuls
heir apparent	heirs apparent
maidservant	maidservants
man-of-war	men-of-war
mix-up	mix-ups
mother-in-law	mothers-in-law
mouthful	mouthfuls
notary public	notaries public
passer-by	passers-by
sergeant major	sergeants major
sister-in-law	sisters-in-law
son-in-law	sons-in-law
step-parent	step-parents
step-daughter	step-daughters
step-mother	step-mothers
tablespoonful	tablespoonfuls
takeoff	takeoffs

The ending –is is changed to –es

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
analysis	analyses	axis	axes
basis	bases	crisis	crises
diagnosis	diagnoses	ellipsis	ellipses
hypothesis	hypotheses	oasis	oases
parenthesis	parentheses	thesis	theses

The Grammatical Gender Of Nouns

Grammatical gender is a system of Noun classification. Common gender classification include the *Masculine*, *Feminine* and *Neuter* categories. In most European languages, the gender is also used for things and intellectual expressions. In English, however, we use gender logically only for living beings. *Masculine Nouns* are words for *men*, *boys* and *male animals*. *Feminine Nouns* are words for *women*, *girls* and *female animals*.

Masculine And Feminine Nouns for People

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
abbot	abbess	actor	actress
administrator	administratrix	ambassador	ambadress
author	authoress	bachelor	spinster
baron	baroness	boy	girl
boy scout	girl guide	brave	squaw
bridegroom	bride	brother	sister
conductor	conductress	count,earl	countess
dad	mum, mom	daddy	mummy, mammie
duke	duchess	emperor	empress
father	mother	father-in-law	mother-in-law
fiance	fiancée	gentleman	lady
giant	giantess	god	goddess
governor	matron	grandfather	grandmother
grandson	granddaughter	headmaster	headmistress
heir	heiress	hero	heroine

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host	hostess	hunter	huntress
husband	wife	king	queen
lad, laddie	lass, lassie	landlord	landlady
lord	lady	lordship	ladyship
male	female	man, bloke, guy	woman
manager	manageress	manservant	maidservant
marquess	marchioness	masculine	feminine
masseur	masseuse	master	mistress
mayor	mayoress	milkman	milkmaid
millionaire	millionairess	monitor	monitress
monk	nun	Mr	Mrs
murderer	murderess	negro	negress
nephew	niece	papa	mama
poet	poetess	policeman	policewoman
postman	postwoman	postmaster	postmistress
priest	priestess	prince	princess
prophet	prophetess	proprietor	proprietress
prosecutor	prosecutrix	protector	protectress
shepherd	shepherdess	sir	madam
son	daughter	son-in-law	daughter-in-law
step-father	step-mother	step-son	step-daughter
steward	stewardess	sultan	sultana
tailor	tailoress	testator	testatrix
uncle	aunt, auntie	usher	usherette
viscount	viscountess	waiter	waitress
washerman	washerwoman	widower	widow, dowager
wizard	witch	tsar, czar	tsarina

Homes of People

People	Home	People	Home
boarder	boarding house	convict	prison
Eskimo	igloo	gypsy	caravan
king	palace	lodger	lodging house
lumberman / jack	log cabin	lunatic	asylum
man	house	monk	monastery
noble	castle	nomad	tent
nun	convent / nunnery	parson	parsonage
patient	hospital	peasant	cottage
pioneer	wagon	priest	temple
prisoner	cell	Red Indian	wigwam, tepee
soldier	barracks		

Nouns For Animals

There is one *general word* for the animal. Many species of animals, particularly domesticated animals, have specific names for the *male*, the *female*, the *offspring* (babies), and the *group* living somewhere.

Animal	Masculine	Feminine	Offspring	Group
ant	male ant	ant queen, ant worker	grub	swarm
antelope	buck	doe	calf	herd
badger	boar	sow	cub, kit	cete
bear	boar	sow	cub	sloth
bee (wasp)	drone	queen, worker	larva, grub	hive, swarm
beetle	male beetle	female beetle	grub	group
bird	male bird	female bird	nestling	flock
butterfly	male butterfly	female	caterpillar	swarm, group
cattle	bull (ox, oxen)	cow	calf	herd, driftt
cat	tom-cat	tabby-cat	kitten	clutter
chicken	cock, rooster	hen	chick, pullet	flock, brood
cockroach	male	female	nymph	swarm, group
deer	stag, hart	doe	fawn	herd, mob
dog, hound	dog	bitch	pup, puppie	pack, litter
donkey, ass	jack, jackass	jenny, jennet	foal, colt	herd, drove
dragonfly	male	female	nymph	swarm
duck	drake	duck	duckling	badelynge
eagle	male eagle	female eagle	eaglet	flock, group
eel	male	female	elver	group

elephant	bull	cow	calf	herd, parade
falcon (hawk)	tiercel	hen	eyas, chick	cast, aerie
ferret	hob	jill	kit	business
fox	tod, dog, fox	vixen	kit, cub, pup	skulk, leash
frog	male frog	female frog	tadpole	group
goose	gander	goose	gosling	flock, gaggle
gorilla	male	female	infant	band, group
grasshopper	male	female	nymph	swarm
guinea pig	boar	sow	pup	group
goat	buck, billy	doe, nanny	kid, billy	herd, tribe
grouse	grouse cock	grouse hen	poult, cheeper	flock
hare	buck	doe	leveret	down, husk
hedgehog	boar	sow	piglet, pup	array
horse	stallion, stud	mare, dam	foal	stable, herd
housefly	male	female	maggot	swarm
young horse	colt	filly	foal	team
human	male	female	baby	family, clan
kangaroo	buck, jack	doe, jill, roo	joey	troop, herd
leopard	leopard	leopardess	cub	leap
lion	lion	lioness	cub	pride
mosquito	male	female	wiggler	swarm
moth	male	female	caterpillar	group
mule	john	molly	foal	barren, pack
ostrich	ostrich cock	ostrich hen	chick	herd, group
oyster	male	female	spat	colony
owl	male owl	female owl	owlet	flock, group
partridge	partridge cock	partridge hen	poult	flock, group

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peafowl	peacock	peahen	peachick	muster
pidgeon	pidgeon cock	pidgeon hen	squab	flock, group
pig, swine	boar	sow	piglet	herd, drove
phesant	phesant cock	phesant hen	poult	flock, group
pigeon	cock-pigeon	hen-pigeon	squab	flock
rabbit	buck	doe	bunny, kitten	colony
rat	buck	doe	pup, pinkie	horde
reindeer	buck	doe, cow	calf	herd
rhinoceros	bull	cow	calf	crash
salmon	male	female	parr	group
seal	bull-seal	cow-seal	pup	herd, pod
shark	male shark	female shark	cub	group
sheep	buck, ram	ewe, dam	lamb, lambkin	herd, drift
snake	male	female	snakelet	nest, bed, pit
sparrow	cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	chick	host
spider	male	female	spiderling	group
swallow	cock	hen	chick	flock
swan	cob	pen	cygnet	herd, game
termites	male	female	larva, grub	swarm
tiger	tiger	tigress	whelp, cub	ambush
toad	male	female	tadpole	knot
trout	male	female	fry	group
turkey	turkey-cock	turkey-hen	poult	rafter
turtle	male	female	hatchling	group
whale:	bull- whale	cow- whale	calf	pod, school
wolf:	dog, he-wolf	bitch, she-wolf	whelp, pup	pack, rout
zebra	zebra-stallion	zebra-mare	zebra-foal	herd, crossing

Homes of Animals

Creature	Home	Creature	Home
ant	nest, ant-hill	bear	den
beaver	lodge	bee	hive
bird	nest	chicken	coop
cow	byre, pen	dog	kennel
eagle	eyric	earthworm	soil
fish	water	fowl	coop
fox	lair	hare	form
horse	stable	lion	lair, den
mouse	hole, nest	owl	barn, nest
pig	sty	pigeon	dovecote
rabbit (tame)	hutch	rabbit (wild)	burrow, warren
sheep	pen	snail	shell
spider	web	squirrel	drey
tiger	lair	tortoise	shell
turtle	shell	wasp	nest

Collective Nouns for People

Noun	Collective Noun	Noun	Collective Noun
actors	cast/company/troupe	angels	host
artistes	troupe	beauties	bevy
beautiful women	galaxy	climbers	team

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crooks	bunch, gang	customers	trickle
dancers	group, troupe	directors	board
employees	staff	entertainers	troupe
experts	panel	film stars	galaxy
friends	party	girls	bevy
gypsies	caravan	journalists	gaggle
kings	dynasty, line	labourers	gang
magistrates	bench	men	body
musicians	band, orchestra	people	crowd
performers	troupe	players	team
policemen	patrol, posse	prisoners	gang
pupils	class	rascals	pack
rioters	mob	robbers	band, gang
rulers	line	sailors	crew
savages	horde	servants	staff
sightseers	gaggle	singers	choir, group, troupe
soldiers	army, company, regiment	spectators	crowd
students	class	supporters	army
teachers	staff	team	players
thieves	gang/ pack	tribe	natives
troop	scouts	worshippers	congregation

Collective Nouns for Animals

Noun	Collective Noun	Noun	Collective Noun
animals (wild)	menagerie, zoo	antelopes	herd
ants	army, colony, nest, swarm	bees	hive, swarm
birds	flight, flock	buffaloes	herd
camels	caravan, train	cattle	drove, herd
chickens	brood, flock	chicks	brood
deer	herd	dolphins	school
dogs	pack	doves	flight
elephants	herd	fish	catch, haul, shoal
flies	cloud, swarm	foxes	skulk
geese	flock, gaggle	geese in flight	skein
goats	flock, herd	gulls	colony
herrings	school	horses	drove, string, stud, team
hounds	pack	insects	cloud, plague, swarm
kittens	kindle, litter	lions	pride, troop
litter	cubs	locusts	cloud, flight, plague, swarm
mice	nest	monkeys	troop
oxen	team	partridges	covey
peacocks	muster	penguins	rookery
piglets	litter	porpoises	school

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puppies	litter	quail/s	bevy
rabbits	nest	seals	pod / rookery
sheep	drove / flock	sparrows	host
swallows	flight	swine	herd
termites	colony	turtles	rookery
whales	pod / school	wolves	pack / rout

Collective Nouns for Things

Noun	Collective Noun	Noun	Collective Noun
airplanes	flight, squadron	applause	round
apples	crop	arms	stack
arrows	quiver, sheaf	autographs	album
bananas	bunch, cluster, comb, hand	beads	string
bells	peal	blows	shower
books	library, set	bottles	crate
bowls	nest	bread	batch
bread	slice	bullets	hail
bushes	clump, hedge	cakes	batch
cards	deck, pack	cars	fleet, line
china	set	cigarettes	packet
cloth	roll	clothes	outfit, suit
clubs	set	coconuts	cluster
coins	collection	corn	sheaf, stack, harvest
cotton	bale	curiosities	collection

currency/notes	wad	diamonds	cluster
difficult words	glossary	dirt	layer
drawers	chest	dust	cloud
eggs	clutch	events	chain/series
exercises	book	fans (persons)	cluster
film	reel/roll	firewood	bundle
flats	block	flowers	bouquet, bunch, garland
flowers	posy, wreath	fruit	basket, crate
fruit trees	orchard	furniture	suite
galaxies	cluster	games	compendium
golf clubs	set	goods	catalogue, stock
grapes	bunch, cluster	grain	sheaf
grass	tuft	guns	battery
hair	mass, tuft	hay	bundle, stack
hills	range	houses	row
ice	block	islands	archipelago, group
joy	bundle	keys	bunch
knives	block	knives	set
lamb	shoulder	letters	packet
lies	pack	mountains	chain, range
mutton	shoulder	names	list
notes	book	paper	ream/sheaf

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pearls	necklace, rope, string	photographs	album
phrases	glossary	pictures	collection
poems	anthology	pork	shoulder
prices	catalogue	rags/old clothes	bundle
rain	fall/shower	rays	pencil
relics	collection	rice	bowl
rooms	suite	rubbish	heap
ruins	heap/mass	sails	suit
ships	fleet/floatilla	shoes	pair
smoke	column	snow	fall
soil	layer	stamps	album/collection
stars	cluster, galaxy, constellation	steps	flight
sticks	bundle	stones	heap
taxis	fleet		
technical terms	glossary	thread	reel
timber	stack	tobacco leaves	handful
tools	set	trees	clump, forest, grove
twins	pair	wheat	harvest, sheaf
wood	stack, stock	wool	bale

Objects and Sounds

Objects	Sounds	Objects	Sounds
aeroplanes	zoom	bells	ring; peal
brakes	screech	bugles	call
bullets	ping	canes	swish
chains	clank; rattle	clocks	tick; chime
coins	clink;	corks	pop
dishes	rattle; clatter	doors	bang; slam
drums	beat	feet	tramp; shuffle
fire	crackle	glass	tinkle
guns	boom	heart	throb; beat
hinges	creak	hoofs	thunder
horns	toot; hoot	kettles	sing
keys	jingle	leaves	rustle
paper	crinkle; rustle	raindrops	patter
saws	buzz	sirens	wail
steam	hiss	streams	murmur
telephones	buzz	thunder	clap, peal, rumble
trains	rumble	trumpets	blare
watch	tick	water	bubble; lap; drip
whips	crack; lash	wind	howl; sigh
wings	whir		

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Common Gender Nouns with no gender difference

Some Nouns are used for both males and females. **Examples:**

addict	adolescent	adult	adviser
ancestor	artisan	artist	artiste
assistant	athlete	baby	breadwinner
bully	buyer	captain	castaway
chairperson	child	citizen	clerk
commoner	companion	comrade	conjuror
consultant	cook	cousin	criminal
customer	cyclist	dancer	darling
dear	deceased	deer	dentist
diner	divorcee	doctor	driver
enemy	expert	fan	farmer
fishmonger	foreigner	friend	gardener
graduate	guard	guardian	guest
guide	gymnast	hawker	helper
historian	hostage	human being	immigrant
infant	informer	jogger	journalist
judge	killer	lawyer	leader
learner	lecturer	lender	liar
librarian	magistrate	magician	manager
member	minister	motorist	musician
neighbour	newsreader	novelist	officer
orphan	owner	paramedic	parent
passenger	passer-by	pedestrian	pen pal

pensioner	performer	person	photographer
pilot	player	principal	prisoner
professional	professor	pupil	reader
referee	refugee	relation	relative
retiree	rumour-monger	runner	salesperson
scientist	secretary	seller	shopkeeper
shopper	singer	smoker	soldier
speaker	specialist	spectator	spouse
spy	stranger	student	surgeon
sweeper	teacher	teenager	thief
tourist	traveller	tutor	typist
victim	visitor	volunteer	war-monger
well-wisher	worker	worshipper	writer

Common Gender of Animals (no Gender difference)

ant	chimpanzee	giraffe	sheep
ape	cat	goat	snail
ass	crab	insect	snake
bear	crocodile	lizard	squirrel
bee	deer	moth	swan
beetle	eagle	mouse	tadpole
bird	fish	owl	tortoise
butterfly	fly	penguin	turtle
caterpillar	fowl	prawn	vulture
chicken	frog	shark	wasp

Creating New Words For People

When you do not know the specific Noun or profession-name for a human, you can try to create a new word for a person by taking any common Verb and add the ending **-er** to its end: borrow**er**, buy**er**, dancer**er**, dine**er**, drink**er**, drive**er**, eater**er**, follow**er**, help**er**, informer**er**, jogger**er**, join**er**, lead**er**, learn**er**, lecture**er**, lend**er**, manager**er**, murder**er**, owner**er**, player**er**, run**ner**, reader**er**, killer**er**, performer**er**, seller**er**, shopper**er**, sleeper**er**, singer**er**, smoke**er**, speaker**er**, sweep**er**, swim**mer**, talker**er**, teacher**er**, traveller**er**, waiter**er**, walker**er**, worker**er**, worship**per**, writer**er**. This trick keeps you talking and gives the listener an idea what you mean.

Specifying The Gender Of An Unknown Person Or Species

Learners, and even native speakers, find themselves sometimes in the situation that they want or need to express the gender of a Noun without knowing the specific expression. We always can specify the gender of a human or animal by using the Adjectives “**male**” and “**female**” in front of a particular Noun: **male** or **female sheep**, **male** or **female customer**. For humans we have the possibility to say: a **male nurse**, a **woman prime minister**, a **manservant**, or even a **lady client**. For expressing the offspring of animals, we can say: a **baby-sheep**, a **baby-pig**, an **infant bee**. For any group of humans or animals you can say “**a group of**” as in **a group of horses**, **a group of birds**,

Tip: We basically use the same words for specifying male, female, offspring or group of similar species, or kind of animals that look or

behave alike: bee - wasp, ant, bumblebee; cattle - buffalo, bison, horse - donkey, zebra; chicken - fowl, other birds. Your chosen expression might not sound very professional but you will be understood!

Note: ***Ships – and most countries – are female. This means that we use the Personal Pronouns “she, her, hers, herself”!***

Forming Abstract Nouns

An Abstract Noun refers to a thing that has no physical form. This means that we cannot see or touch it. It denotes an idea (education, discipline), quality (ability, beauty) or state (belief, hope). Abstract Nouns are derived particularly from Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives.

Most Abstract Nouns **from common Nouns** are formed with the ending **-ship, -hood**:

Noun	Abstract Noun	Noun	Abstract Noun
brother	brotherhood	child	childhood
friend	friendship	king	kingship
kin	kinship	leader	leadership
man	manhood	(hu)man	(hu)mankind
member	membership	mother	motherhood
neighbour	neighbourhood	scholar	scholarship

Abstract Nouns **from Verbs** can have many different endings and forms. We also can build an Abstract Noun easily using the Present Participle as Noun, the so-called Gerund. It always has the ending **-ing** and what we get is an informal but correct Abstract Noun: act - acting, appear - appearing, behave - behaving, believe - believing, and so on. Here are the formal Abstract Nouns:

Verb	Abstract Noun	Verb	Abstract Noun
act	action	appear	appearance
behave	behaviour	believe	belief
die	death	do	deed
employ	employment	free	freedom

grow	growth	invite	invitation
judge	judgement	know	knowledge
laugh	laughter	lose	loss
marry	marriage	permit	permission
please	pleasure	refuse	refusal
sell	sale	speak	speech
think	thought	treat	treatment

Abstract Nouns **from Adjectives** can have many different endings and forms. We can build many Abstract Nouns by adding the ending **-ness** to an Adjective:

Adjective	Abstract Noun	Adjective	Abstract Noun
able	ability	angry	anger
beautiful	beauty	brave	bravery
deep	depth	different	difference
difficult	difficulty	easy	ease
envious	envy	fresh	freshness
great	greatness	happy	happiness
high	height	honest	honesty
hungry	hunger	industrious	industry
kind	kindness	long	length
moral	morality	new	newness
strong	strength	thick	thickness
thin	thinness	thirsty	thirst
tall	tallness	unique	uniqueness
weak	weakness	wealthy	wealth
wide	width	wise	wisdom

Rank and Hierarchy

The knowledge of hierarchy is important. However, be aware that names for rank and position vary from organisation to organisation. Even inside the armed forces of one country the names of rank can be quite different as we can see in the following examples of the **officer's ranks** in the 3 main branches of the **British Armed Forces**:

Royal Navy	Royal Army	Royal Air Force
Admiral of the fleets	Generalissimo or General of the Armies	-
Admiral of the fleet	Field marshal or General of the army	Marshal of the air force
Admiral	General	Air chief marshal
Vice admiral	Lieutenant general	Air marshal
Rear admiral	Major general	Air vice-marshal
Commodore	Brigadier or Brigadier general	Air commodore
Captain	Colonel	Group captain
Commander	Lieutenant colonel	Wing commander
Lieutenant commander	Major or Commandant	Squadron leader
Lieutenant	Captain	Flight lieutenant
Sub-lieutenant	Lieutenant or First lieutenant	Flying officer
Ensign	Second lieutenant	Pilot officer
Midshipman	Officer cadet	Flight cadet

Military ranks of common soldiers in the British Armed Forces:

Royal Navy	Royal Army	Royal Air Force
Warrant officer or Chief petty officer	Warrant officer or Sergeant major	Warrant officer
Petty officer	Sergeant	Sergeant
Leading seaman	Corporal	Corporal
Seaman	Private	Aircraftman

Attention: In other English-speaking countries such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand or the United States of America, those ranks can be different as well.

Hierarchy of Education:

Education is a topic in which rank and classification come together:

Doctorate

Master's Degree

Bachelor's Degree

Higher Education (above age 18)

Secondary Education (age 11-18); compulsory education

Primary Education (age 5-11); compulsory education

Preschool Education (age 3-5)

Full-time education is compulsory in the United Kingdom for all children aged 5 to 18. "Year" may be called "grade" in other countries. Examples:

Year	Age	State funded school names
Nursery	3-4	Preschool / Infant / Optional Education
Reception	4-5	Preschool / Infant / Optional Education
Year 1	5-6	Primary school / Infant school / Compulsory Education begins
Year 2	6-7	Primary school / Infant school
Year 3	7-8	Primary school / Junior school
Year 4	8-9	Primary school / Junior school
Year 5	9-10	Primary school / Junior school
Year 6	10-11	Primary school / Junior school; Final exam: "SATS" (They may also take an Entrance exam to get into secondary school of choice).
Year 7	11-12	Secondary school (Can be referred to as <i>Lower school</i> in some schools) / High school / Grammar school
Year 8	12-13	Secondary (Can be referred to as <i>Lower school</i> in some schools) / High school / Grammar school
Year 9	13-14	Secondary (This is the year the GCSE options are chosen in most schools) (Can be referred to as <i>Lower school</i> in some schools) / High school / Grammar school
Year 10	14-15	Secondary school / High school / Grammar school
Year 11	15-16	Secondary school / High school / Grammar school; Final exam "GCSE"
Year 12	16-17	Secondary school / College / Sixth form / Grammar school
Year 13	17-18	Secondary school / College / Sixth form / Grammar school; Final exam: "A-Levels"

Hierarchy in Institutes of Education

After this compulsory education could follow optional an education as apprentice, or at a vocational school, university college or the university. Schools and Universities themselves have a certain hierarchy that can vary from school to school and from country to country. Here a general idea:

School Hierarchy:

Trustees
Rector / Director of Education / Superintendent / Principal
Deputy Rector / Deputy Director
Officers
Head Teacher / Head Master
Deputy Head Teacher
Assistant Head Teacher
Principal Teacher
Subject Teachers
Students

University Hierarchy:

Rector / Director of Education / Superintendent / Principal
Chancellor
Dean, Deputy Rector / Deputy Director
University Professor
Professor
Associate Professor
Assistant Professor
Lecturer

Taxonomy or Biological Rank

The taxonomical description for a human looks like this:

Taxonomy	Roman (Latin)	English Explanation
Kingdom:	Animalia	Animal
Phylum:	Chordata	Spine or vertebrate animal
Class:	Mammalia	Mammal (breast-feeder)
Order:	Primates	First rank animal like apes
Suborder:	Haplorhini	no Vitamin C producing enzymes
Family:	Hominidae	belonging to "human-like apes"
Genus:	Homo	human, man
Species:	Homo sapiens	knowledgeable man
Subspecies:	Homo sapiens sapiens	modern knowledgeable man

A person can be further classified into the following categories:

Ethnicity or Race: African, Asian, European (Caucasian), etc.

Nationality: British, Chinese, French, German, Dutch, etc.

Region, State or Province: Scotland, Wales, Ireland, etc.

Tribe: Celtic, Saxon, Frisian, Jute, Alleman, Bavarian, etc.

Clan (Clan name such as The Habsburgs), **Family** (Family name: Habsburg), **Individual Person** (any Given name)

Social Hierarchy is another kind of rank to talk about the background of a person:

- 1.) Upper Class, 2.) Upper Middle Class, 3.) Middle Class,
- 4.) Lower Middle Class, 5.) Working Class

Titles and Ranks of the British aristocracy date back to the Middle Ages. These Upper Class ranks have equivalents in all Europe. We show them here in a downhill order:

Emperor, Empress

King, Queen

Grand Duke / Grand Prince,

Grand Duchess / Grand Princess

Archduke, Archduchess

Duke, Duchess

(Prince)-Elector, Electress

Prince, Princess

Viceroy, Vicereine

Marquess / Margrave,

Marchioness / Margravine

Earl / Count, Countess

Viscount, Viscountess

Baron, Baroness

Baronet, Baronetess

Knight (Esquire / Gentleman), Dame

The Lower ranks of British Feudalism were:

The Squires

The Lord

The Younger Sons

The Common Men

The Villeins / Serfs

The Slaves

Titles and Ranks of the Roman-Catholic Church date back even to the time of the Roman Empire. Here the Ranks and their administrative areas:

The Pope / Patriarch / Pontifex Maximus (the most superior priest)

Cardinals (the Pope's deputies and electors, appointed by himself)

Archbishop / Metropolitan (administrative area: **Province**)

Bishop (administrative area and subdivision of a province: **Diocese**)

Priest (administrative area and subdivision of a diocese: **Parish**)

Deacon (assistant priest)

At around 1550, *Martin Luther* and others triggered the Reformation which created the **Protestant Churches**. *King Henry VIII.* then broke the power of the Roman-Catholic Church in England. Since that time, the English Monarch is head of the **Anglican Church**. Here its ranks and the administrative areas:

The regning **King / Queen of England** (Supreme Governor of the Church of England)

Archbishop of Canterbury (the senior bishop and principal leader of the Church of England)

Archbishop of York (the metropolitan bishop of the northern regions of England (north of the River Trent) as well as the Isle of Man.

Bishop (administrative area and subdivision of a province: **Diocese**)

Priest / Vicar / Pastor / Rector / Incumbent / Minister (administrative area and subdivision of a diocese: **Parish**); *Dean* (priest and leader of a group of parishes in a rural area called **Deanery**)

Deacon (assistant priest)

Whilst the military and educational hierarchy is pretty straight forward, the organisational structure of businesses, politics and law seem shrowded in mystery. This has at least two reasons: A.) The structures of hierarchy are organised in different ways, and B.) Lots of structures in politics, law and trade are kept in the dark on purpose!

Police Rank:

Commissioner

Deputy Commissioner

Assistant Commissioner / (Deputy) Chief Constable

Deputy Assistant Commissioner

Commander / Assistant Chief Constable

Chief Superintendent

Superintendent

Chief Inspector

Inspector

Sergeant

Police Constable

Civil Courts Hierarchy:

The Supreme Court of the United Kingdom

The Court of Appeal

The High Court

The Queen's Bench Division

The Family Division

The Chancery Division

County Courts

The Tribunals

Hierarchy in a Manor House / Castle / Palace / Hotel

Houses of the gentry and aristocracy build the foundation in structure and organisation of many modern businesses such as hotels, inns, hostels, hospitals, restaurants, spas, of any kind of business that deals with guests who pay for staying, eating and leisure. Traditions of the gentry houses, that date back hundreds of years, have been past over to modern gastronomy and hotelery businesses. Here we can see both, a traditional and a modern structure:

Master and Mistress of the House	
The Master's personal Staff:	The Mistrresse's personal Staff:
1. The Secretary 1. Valet	1. The Lady's Companion 1. Lady's Maid
Male Staff, Upstairs:	Female Staff, Upstairs:
1. The Butler 2. Coachman / Driver 2. 1st Footman 3. 2nd Footman 4. Footmen 5. Hallboy / Gatekeeper	1. The Housekeeper 2. Head Housemaid 3. Parlour Maids 4. Housemaids 5. Room Maids 5. Laundry Maids
Kitchen Staff, Downstairs:	Nursery Staff, Upstairs:
1. The Cook 2. Undercook 3. Kitchen Maids 4. Dairy / Still Room Maids / 4. Scullary Maids	1. The Governess / 1. Nanny 2. Head Nurse 3. Under Nurse 4. Nurse Maid
Staff of the Stables, grooms	Garden Staff, Game Keepers
The "No. 1" answers directly the Master or Mistress of the House!	

Hotel / Gastronomy Hierarchy, Top Level:	
Owner / President / Director / Chief Executive Officer (CEO) Vice President / Partner / Chairman of board The Board Finance Director / Marketing Director / Human Resource Director	
Executive Level Positions:	
General Manager The General Manager's Secretary Finance / Sales / Marketing Managers Office / Accounts / Purchase / Managers Head of Cooks / Catering Manager / Head of Rooms and Reception	
"Front of House" (FOH)	"Back of House" (BOH)
Restaurant Staff:	Kitchen Staff:
1. The Restaurant Manager / 1. Butler / Store Room Manager 2. Head Bar Tender 3. Bar Tenders / Bar Waiters 2. Dining Room Head Waiter 3. Table Waiters / 3. Buffet Waiters 4. Dining Room Cleaners	1. The Head Chef 2. Sous Chefs 3. Pastry Chefs 4. Bakers 5. Assistant Cooks 6. Banquet / Catering Servers 7. Dish Cleaners / 7. Scullary and Kitchen Cleaners
Reception Staff:	Room and Cleaning Staff:
1. The Head Receptionist 2. Receptionists / Accountants / 2. Concierge / Caretaker 3. Door Guards	1. The Housekeeper 2. Head Room Cleaner 3. Room Cleaner Floor Leader 4. Room Cleaners
Staff of Garage and Carpark	Garden and yard staff
A person can efficiently be in charge of several different positions!	

Hospital Staff Hierarchy:

Dean of the Hospital
Hospital Administrators
Specialist Surgeons
Normal Specialists
Silent Doctors
Nurses
Physician Assistants
Medical Students
Interns

Main Positions of a Business administration:

Owner / Chairman
Managing Director
Executive Director
General Manager
Manager / Head of the Department
Office manager
Assistant manager
Supervisor
Quality controller
Clerk
Secretary
Coordinator
Technical head
Operators
Workers

Main Positions of a Production Department:

Marketing manager / Financial manager / Sales manager
Regional manager
Sales executive / Marketing executive
Senior accountant
Junior accountant
Technical manager / Warehouse manager
Designers and Developers
Manufacturers / Operators
Workers / Cleaners

Poker Hand Hierarchy:

In the game of *Poker*, the entire "hand" is to be count. Each and every of the 5 cards are important! (*Only possible when using one or more *wild cards*, **Category does not exist under ace-to-five low rules)

Rank	Name	Examples
0	Five of a kind*	3♥ 3♦ 3♣ 3♠ + Joker; or higher A♥ A♦ A♣ A♠ + Joker
1	Straight flush**	7♦ 6♦ 5♦ 4♦ 3♦; or higher Q♣ K♣ A♣ 2♣ 3♣
2	Four of a kind	9♣ 9♠ 9♦ 9♥ J♥; or higher K♠ K♥ K♣ K♦ 3♥
3	Full house	4♦ 4♠ 4♣ 9♦ 9♣; or higher 8♠ 8♦ 8♥ 7♦ 7♣
4	Flush**	J♥ 10♥ 8♥ 4♥ 3♥; or higher J♠ 10♠ 8♠ 6♠ 3♠
5	Straight**	5♣ 4♦ 3♥ 2♥ A♠; or higher 7♣ 6♠ 5♠ 4♥ 3♥
6	Three of a kind	3♦ 3♠ 3♣ J♠ 7♥; or lower 3♦ 3♠ 3♣ J♠ 5♦
7	Two pair	10♦ 10♠ 2♠ 2♣ K♣; or lower 5♣ 5♠ 4♦ 4♥ 10♥
8	One pair	6♦ 6♥ Q♠ 8♠ 7♦; or higher 6♦ 6♥ Q♥ J♠ 2♣
9	High card	K♠ 6♣ 5♥ 3♦ 2♣; or lower Q♠ J♦ 6♣ 5♥ 3♣

SENTENTIA

*Word Order
In Declarative
Statements*

that is the way of
thinking and feeling and how
we correctly put words in a

*S*entence

*Punctuation –
"The Neglected
Tool"*

Word Order With "Sentence Adverbs"

*Basic
Usage Of The
Relative Clause In English*

Word Order In Questions

Subject–Auxiliary Inversion

1. *The Relative Pronoun as Subject*

2. *The Relative Pronoun as Object*

3. *The Relative Pronoun as a Possessive*

4. *Relative clauses starting with a Preposition*

5. *More complex structures*

Fronting

6. *Defining and non-defining relatives, and punctuation.*

Headers and Tails

Cleft sentences

7. *Relative clauses which qualify a whole sentence, not just a Noun.*



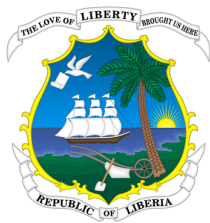
The Arab Republic of Egypt



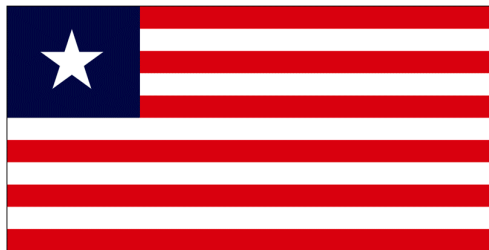
The State of Israel



The Republic of Singapore



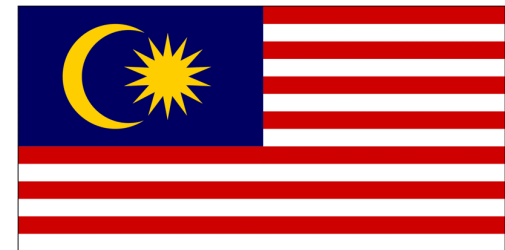
The Republic of Liberia



The Kingdom of Thailand



The Sultanate of Malaysia



History and modern politics go hand in hand. English has helped troubled nations to solve problems in the past. Old enemies negotiate in English. English is the glue that holds Israeli or Singaporeans together.

HOW TO BUILD SENTENCES CORRECTLY IN ENGLISH

Word Order In Declarative Statements

Word order is very important in English. It can be reduced to a few basic rules or principles. The main word order is **S-V-O** which means “**Subject-Verb-Object**”. This order prevails even in most subordinate sentences and clauses! In the examples below, parts of the sentence are colour-coded: Subjects in **red**, Verbs in **blue**, *direct Objects* in **green**, the *indirect Object* in **indigo blue**, Adverbs or Adverb phrases in **pink** etc.

In a normal (declarative) sentence, the Subject of a sentence comes directly in front of the Verb. The direct Object (when there is one) comes directly after it. **Examples:** **The man** wrote a letter. **People who live in glasshouses** should not throw stones. **The president** laughed.

Note that by the Subject, we mean not just a single word, but the subject noun or Pronoun plus Adjectives or descriptive phrases that go with it. The rest of the sentence - i.e. the part that is not the Subject - is called *the predicate*. **Example:** **People who live in glasshouses** should not throw stones. **I** like playing football with my friends in the park. **The child who had been sleeping all day** woke up.

If a sentence has any other parts to it - indirect Objects, Adverbs or Adverb phrases – these usually come in specific places: The **indirect Object** follows the **direct Object** when it is formed with the preposition **to**: The **indirect Object** comes in front of the direct Object if to is

omitted. **Example:** **The doctor** gave some medicine to the child. or: **The doctor** gave the child some medicine.

The position of **Adverbs** or **Adverb phrases** can come in three possible places:

a) Before the Subject (Notably with common Adverbs or Adverb phrases) **Example:** **Yesterday** the man wrote a letter

b) After the Object (Virtually any Adverb or Adverb phrase can be placed here) **Example:** **The man** wrote a letter **on his computer in the train**. (or with **intransitive verbs** after the Verb. **Example:** **The child** was sleeping **on a chair in the kitchen**).

c) In the middle of the Verb group. (Notably with short common Adverbs) **Example:** **The man** has already written his letter

Word Order With “Sentence Adverbs”

Sentence Adverbs (like *perhaps, surely, naturally, also*) relate to a whole clause or sentence, not just a single word. In most cases, they stand outside the clause they refer to, notably at the start of the clause. However, they may be placed elsewhere in the clause for reasons of stress or emphasis. **Examples:**

Surely the man has already written his letter.

Perhaps the man has already written his letter.

..., therefore the man had already written his letter.

The man has perhaps already written his letter

Naturally the man grew vegetables in his garden.

Compare this with: The man grew vegetables naturally in his garden. which has quite a different meaning.

In standard English, nothing usually comes between the Subject and the Verb, or between the Verb and the Object. There are a few exceptions. The most important of these are Adverbs of frequency and indirect Objects without "to". **Example:** The man often wrote his mother a letter. I sometimes give my dog a bone.

If you always apply these few simple rules, you will not make too many word order problems in English. The examples above are deliberately simple - but the rules can be applied even to complex sentences, with subordinate and coordinated clauses. **Example:** The director, [who often told his staff (to work harder),] never left the office before [he had checked his e-mail.]

Of course, there are exceptions to many rules, and writers and speakers sometimes use different or unusual word order for special effects. But if we concentrate on the exceptions, we may forget the main principles, and the question of word order may start to seem very complex! So here are just a few examples: you should realise that they exist, but not try to use them unless either they are essential in the context, or else you have fully mastered normal word order patterns. (Don't try to run before you can walk!) A few examples:

Never before had I seen such a magnificent exhibition. (After never or never before, Subject and Verb can be - and usually are - inverted. Do not invert when never follows the Subject!).

Hardly had I left the house, than it started to rain. (When a sentence starts with hardly, Subject and Verb must be inverted.).

Had I known, I should never have gone there. (Inversion occurs in unfulfilled hypothetical conditional structures when "if" is omitted.)

The book that you gave me I had read already. (The long object, The book that you gave me, is placed at the start of the sentence for reasons of style: this unusual sentence structure is not necessary, just stylistic).

The 5-Column Table

The word order in English is so strict that we can build almost every sentence and clause according to the following 5-column table. The English sentence is based on the order Subject-Verb-Object. The word order is very important in a sentence as **The policeman pursues the thief means** exactly the opposite of **The thief pursues the policeman**. A sentence has at least two parts, but usually it has more. It is said that an English sentence has always a Verb, but this is not entirely true as we often can see in newspaper headlines sentences like "Prime minister in trouble" (no Verb!).

Note: Adverbs have great freedom! Most Adverbs that tell us anything about time or other qualities, are best placed at the end of the sentence or clause. However, many common Frequency Adverbs (always, often, sometimes, seldom, never) and the word "not" should be placed right in front of the main Verb. We also can place other Adverbs in front of the main Verb to express strong emphasis.

Practise Word Order Of Sentences With A 5-Column Table

Usage: **Column 1** is for the Subject (including a complement or relative clause), **Column 2** is for the Verb (or Verbs, Frequency-Adverbs, Prepositions), and **Column 3** is for the Object (direct and indirect, including a complement or relative clause; mind you put *quality* before *location*!). The first and the last columns have simply the name **X**. You can put *time words* or any other describing *Adverbs* (such as *today*, *now*, *often*, *sometimes* etc.) either in the **first X-** or in the **last X-column**. You can use the first X-column even for questions that begin with a Helper or Modal Verb and even a question word before them. When you think, the *(time-)Adverb* is important for your sentence, just put it in the first X-column, if not, put it in the last X-column. **Tip:** It is always safer to put **time expressions** in the last X-column! *Frequency-Adverbs* that refer to the main Verb (*always*, *often*, *sometimes*, *seldom*, *never*; *not*; and even *little*, *quickly*, *boldly*, etc.), can be placed directly **before** the main Verb:

X	1	2	3		X
Time, Adverb	SUBJECT, Complement, Clause	VERB (Frequency-) Adverb	OBJECT, Complement, Clause	Quality Location	Time, Adverb
When? How? Question	What? Which? Who?	Action How?	What? Which? Whom?	How? Where?	When? How?
	The policeman	pursues	the thief.		
	The thief	pursues	the policeman.		
	We	are	students.		
		Let	me try the new tool.		
		Go	away!		
Off	you	go!			
	The man	was sitting	with his wife behind me.		
	Everyone	has	their own task.		
	Which dictionary	is	yours?		
	You	may ask	yourself.		
	We	must <i>not only</i> think of	ourselves.		
	Both of them	are	British.		
	He	did <i>not</i> say	anything		after that.
	I	know	little about that novel.		
		Let	us have another cup of tea.		
(Please)		Look at	it,		please.
	What time	is	it		now?
Last week,	I	went	to the cinema in Brook Street.		

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X	1	2	3	X
	The sun	gives	us light and heat	every day.
Yesterday,	my friend	came	to my house with a lot of gifts.	(yesterday).
Please,		help	yourself to some tea.	
	The wind	has dropped,	hasn't it?	
Have	you	(got)	enough money	for today?
Yes,	I	have (got)	enough money	for today.
Has	he	had	breakfast	today?
Do	you	have	a delicious supper	now?
Does	he	want to go	by train.	tomorrow?
		Give	me your book.	please!
Please,		give	your book to me!	
(On Friday)	Maria	wrote	her cousin a letter	on Friday.
(On Friday)	Maria	wrote	a letter to her cousin	on Friday.
	The woman	didn't write	this book	last year.
Didn't	the woman	write	this book	last year?
Did	the woman	not write	this book	last year?
Last week,	we	saw	her.	
	We	saw	her	last week.
(At breakfast)	He	is always reading	his newspaper	at breakfast.
(At breakfast)	He	always is reading	his newspaper	at breakfast.
Yesterday,	I	really did not see	her.	(yesterday).
Yesterday,	I	did not really see	her.	(yesterday).
Yesterday,	I	did not see	her	really.
Really,	I	did not see	her	yesterday.
	The man who sat in the chair	looked out	of the window.	
	We	look after	the woman who has been hurt.	
Has	the boss	not returned	to his office	this morning?
Today, because	the boss he	did not come had	to his office an accident on Oxford Street	on time, at 6 a.m.

Word Order In Questions

The word order of questions is simple. Almost all questions use the same structure. All you need to do is to remember this simple and common English phrase: **How do you do?**

The structure of almost every simple question in English is based on this same model:

(**Question word if there is one**) - **Helper Verb (Auxiliary) or Modal Verb** - **Subject** - **Main Verb** - (plus the rest of the sentence):

Attention! In questions, as in any negative statement, English Verbs are ALWAYS made up of at least *two elements*, an **Helper Verb** and the **Root Verb**. In questions there is **only one** exception to this rule, and that is certain tenses of the Verb **to be**.

For all other Verbs (including tenses with *to have*) that are formed with a single Verb in an affirmative statement (for instance in the Simple Present and the Past tense) are formed in a question by the addition of the Auxiliary **do**.

Examples:

Where did Jane Austen live?

Did Arnold Schwarzenegger learn English quickly?

How quickly did Arnold Schwarzenegger learn English ?

Has the bank sent us an invoice yet?

How many books have you read this year ?

Is the new secretary being given her own laptop ?

Can the new secretary be given her own laptop ?

How quickly can the new secretary be given her own laptop ?

Is the new secretary nice ?

Comparison between statements and questions with single-word tenses :

He had a good time. > **Did he have** a good time?

NOT ~~Had he~~ a good time?

He lives in new York. > **Does he live** in new York?

NOT ~~Lives he~~ in New York?

Exceptions: Certain Adverbs, notably short Frequency Adverb or time, can and indeed sometimes must be placed **between the Helper Verb and the Root Verb**, as in statements. In questions, these Adverbs are placed between the Subject and the Root Verb.

Has that French company yet sent us their order ?

Can the new secretary soon be given a bigger desk ?

What sort of hats do the ladies usually wear?

Subject–Auxiliary Inversion

Subject–Auxiliary inversion (also called subject–operator inversion) is a frequently occurring type of inversion in English, whereby a finite Helper Verb – taken here to include finite forms of the copula **be** – appears to “invert” (change places) with the Subject. The word order is therefore *Auxiliary–Subject*, which is the *opposite* of the usual Subject–Verb order of declarative clauses in English. The most frequent use of *Subject–Auxiliary Inversion* in English is in the formation of questions, although it also has other uses, including the formation of condition clauses, and in the syntax of sentences beginning with negative expressions (negative inversion).

In certain types of English sentences, Inversion is also possible with Verbs other than Auxiliary Verbs.

Overview

Subject–Auxiliary Inversion involves placing the Subject after a finite Auxiliary verb, rather than before it as is the case in typical declarative sentences (the usual word order of English being *subject–verb–object*). The Auxiliary Verbs which may participate in such Inversion (e.g. is, can, have, will, etc.) are described at English Auxiliaries and Contractions. Note that forms of the Verb *be* are included regardless of whether or not they function as Auxiliaries in the sense of governing another Verb form. (For exceptions to this restriction, see Inversion with other types of Verb below.)

A typical example of Subject–Auxiliary Inversion is given below.

- a. *Sam has read the paper.* - Statement
- b. *Has Sam read the paper?* - Yes–no question formed by using Inversion

Here the subject is Sam, and the verb *has* is an Auxiliary. In the question, these two elements change places (invert). If the sentence does not have an Auxiliary Verb, this type of simple Inversion is not possible. Instead, an auxiliary must be introduced into the sentence in order to allow Inversion:

- a. *Sam enjoys the paper.* (Statement with the non-Auxiliary Verb *enjoys*)
- b. **Enjoys Sam the paper?* (This is incorrect; simple Inversion not possible with this type of Verb)
- c. *Does Sam enjoy the paper?* (The sentence formulated with the Helper Verb **does** now allows Inversion)

For exceptions to the principle that the Inverted Verb must be an Auxiliary, see Inversion involving non-Auxiliary Verbs below. It is also possible for the subject to invert with a negative Contraction (*can't*, *isn't*, etc.). For example:

- a. *He isn't nice.*
- b. *Isn't he nice?* (The subject *he* Inverts with the negated Auxiliary Contraction *isn't*) Compare this with the uncontracted form *Is he not nice?* and the archaic *Is not he nice?*

Uses Of Subject–Auxiliary Inversion

The main uses of Subject–Auxiliary Inversion in English are described in the following sections, although other types can occasionally be found. It should be noted that most of these uses of Inversion are restricted to main clauses; they are not found in subordinate clauses. However other types (such as Inversion in conditional clauses) are specific to subordinate clauses.

In Questions

The most common use of Subject–Auxiliary Inversion in English is in question formation. It appears in yes–no questions:

- a. *Sam has read the paper.* (Statement)
- b. *Has Sam read the paper?* (Question)

and also in questions introduced by other Interrogative Pronouns (question words):

- a. *Sam is reading the paper.* (Statement)
- b. *What is Sam reading?* (Question introduced by interrogative *what*)

Inversion does not occur, however, when the question word is the Subject or is contained in the Subject (*which book*). In this case the Subject remains before the Verb (it can be said that question word-fronting takes precedence over Subject–Auxiliary Inversion):

- a. *Somebody has read the paper.* (Statement)
- b. *Who has read the paper?* (The subject is the interrogative *who*; no Inversion)
- c. *Which fool has read the paper?* (The Subject contains the Interrogative *which*; no inversion)

Inversion also does not normally occur in indirect questions, where the question is no longer in the main clause, due to the penthouse principle. For example:

- a. *"What did Sam eat?"*, Cathy wonders. (Inversion in a direct question)
- b. **Cathy wonders what did Sam eat.* (Incorrect; Inversion should not be used in an indirect question)
- c. *Cathy wonders what Sam ate.* (Correct; indirect question formed without Inversion)

Similarly:

- a. *We asked whether Tim had left.* (Correct; indirect question without Inversion)
- b. **We asked whether had Tim left.* (Incorrect)

Negative Inversion

Another use of Subject–Auxiliary Inversion is in sentences which begin with certain types of expressions which contain a negation or have negative force. For example:

- a. *Jessica will say that at no time.*
- b. *At no time will Jessica say that.* (Subject-Auxiliary Inversion with a fronted negative expression).

This is described in detail at negative Inversion.

Inversion In Condition Clauses

Subject–Auxiliary Inversion can be used in certain types of subordinate clause expressing a condition:

- a. *If the General had not ordered the advance,...*
- b. *Had the General not ordered the advance,...* (Subject-Auxiliary Inversion of a counterfactual conditional clause)

Note that when the condition is expressed using inversion, the conjunction *if* is omitted. More possibilities are given at English conditional sentences: Inversion in condition clauses, and variations are described at English Subjunctive: Inversion.

Other Cases:

Subject–Auxiliary Inversion is used after the anaphoric particle *so*, mainly in elliptical sentences. The same frequently occurs in elliptical clauses beginning with *as*.

- a. *Fred fell asleep, and Jim fell asleep too.*
- b. *Fred fell asleep, and so did Jim.*
- c. *Fred fell asleep, as did Jim.*

Inversion also occurs following an expression beginning with *so* or *such*, as in:

- a. *We felt so tired* (such tiredness) *that we fell asleep.*
- b. *So tired* (Such tiredness) *did we feel that we fell asleep.*

Subject–Auxiliary Inversion may optionally be used in elliptical clauses introduced by the particle of comparison *than*:

- a. *Sally knows more languages than her father does.*
- b. *Sally knows more languages than does her father.* (Optional Inversion, with no change in meaning).

Fronting

The most common word order in a declarative clause is Subject (s) + Verb (V) + Object (O) or complement:
[S] [V] I bought [O] a new camera.

Sometimes, particularly in speaking, when we want to focus on something important, we bring it to the front of the clause. This is called 'fronting':

*I bought a new camera. And **a very expensive camera** it was.* (Most common word order: It was a very expensive camera.)

Some elements like adjuncts or complements do not typically belong at the beginning of a clause. When we want to focus on them, we bring them to the front or beginning of the clause. We often find this in written literary or formal contexts.

Compare

Carefully , he removed the lid. (fronted so as to focus on carefully)	He removed the lid carefully . (most common word order)
All of a sudden , it started to snow. (fronted so as to focus on all of a sudden)	It started to snow all of a sudden . (most common word order)

When the fronting involves a prepositional phrase (*on the corner, in front of me*) we often change the order of the Subject and the Verb.

Compare

fronted prepositional phrase followed by Verb + subject	most common word order
On the corner stood a little shop.	<i>A little shop stood on the corner.</i>
In front of me was the President of Chile.	<i>The President of Chile was in front of me.</i>

In informal speaking we commonly take the Subject or Object from within the clause and put it at the front of the clause. We often do this when the Noun phrase is long and we usually use a Pronoun to replace it in the clause:

That man over there with the dog, he works in the corner shop.
(That man over there with the dog works in the corner shop.)

That book you told me about, they've made it into a film. (They've made that book you told me about into a film.)

Headers and Tails

Headers and tails are common in speaking, but very uncommon in writing. We use headers when we place information at the front of what we say. This can help our listeners to understand more easily what we are referring to. Headers can consist of a Noun phrase or Noun phrases or whole clauses. The header is followed by a Pronoun (underlined in the examples) which refers back to the header:

Anna, David's sister, she's going to New York for her birthday.

That big house, is it where the doctor lives?

Going to football matches, that's what my cousin Jim likes best.

Tails occur at the end of what we say. They are commonly Noun phrases. Tails refer back to a Pronoun (underlined in the examples), and commonly give more information about it. Like headers, they help a listener to understand more easily what we are referring to:

They're not cheap to buy, **cars in Singapore**.

She's a really good marathon runner, **Alice**.

IT to create focus

When we use *it* at the beginning of a clause, the Subject can go at the end of the clause and therefore be in the position of focus or emphasis (underlined):

It's great to know that you have passed all of your exams.

It was ridiculous paying for two houses.

To create extra focus on time adjuncts (*yesterday, in the morning, at 4 am*), we can front them using phrases such as *it is/was not until, it is/was only when*. In the case of *not until*, the negative Verb comes in the *until*-clause, not the main clause:

It wasn't until the bill came yesterday that we realised what an expensive hotel it was. (Compare: *Until the bill came yesterday, we didn't realise what an expensive hotel it was*.)

It was only when I woke at 8 am, that I realised the alarm hadn't gone off!

(Compare: *When I woke at 8 am, I realised the alarm hadn't gone off*.)

THERE to create focus

We can use *there* at the start of a clause as a type of indefinite Subject. This means that we can put the actual Subject at the end of the clause and so give it emphasis or focus (underlined below):

There was a strange smell coming from the room. (Compare: *A strange smell was coming from the room*.)

There are many people willing to travel to the concert. (Compare: *Many people are willing to travel to the concert*.)

Noun Forms of a Verb to create focus

In formal writing, especially academic writing, we can use a Noun form of a Verb as a Subject. By doing this, extra focus is given to the end of the clause. Noun phrase Subjects (topics) are in bold type below; the focus of each sentence is underlined:

The discovery of oil brought immense wealth to the country. (Compare: *Oil was discovered and this brought immense wealth to the country*.)

His emergence as a leader came about after the strikes of the 1980s. (Compare: *He emerged as a leader (and this came about) after the strikes of the 1980s*.)

Cleft Sentences

Cleft means 'divided' and in a cleft sentence a single message is divided across two clauses. We use cleft sentences, especially in speaking, to connect what is already understood to what is new to the listener. By doing this we can focus on the new information. There are different types of cleft sentences.

***IT*-cleft sentences**

In these sentences, the focus is on the *it*-clause and this is where we put the new information (underlined below). We use *that* to connect another clause containing information which is already understood by the listener:

A: Did you find your MP3 player, Lisa?

B: ***It was my phone that I'd lost. I found it under the couch.*** (Focus: *it was my phone* (not my MP3 player). Already understood: I'd lost something.)

***WH*-cleft sentences**

Wh-cleft sentences are introduced by a *wh*-word, usually *what*. The old information is in the *wh*-clause and the new information (underlined) is at the end:

What I love about you is your sense of humour.

Where you'll find great seafood is Molly's Seafood Restaurant on the quay.

THE THING, THE ONE THING, SOMETHING

The thing

We can use *the thing* in front position plus a form of the Verb *be* to bring attention to an item in the clause. It means the same as *what* plus *be*, but it is more informal (the focus in each sentence is underlined below):

The thing I like most about Italy is the food. (or *What I like most about Italy is the food.*)

We can use a singular Verb even if the item we focus on is Plural :

The thing I like most about Scotland is the castles.

When we focus on a *that*-clause, we can omit *that* in informal situations:

The thing you need to remember is (that) all of the files from before 2008 are stored in Shona's office.

When we focus on an infinitive clause, we can omit *to* in informal situations:

The thing I didn't want to do was (to) queue all day just for a ticket, so I booked it online.

ONE THING, THE ONE THING

We can emphasise *thing* with *one*. *The one thing* is even stronger:

*You'll meet a lot people when you're travelling but **one thing** you must never do **is give your address to a complete stranger**.*

The one thing I should never have done was trust Marlene.

SOMETHING

We can use *something* in front position plus a form of the Verb *be* to bring attention to an item in the clause (underlined). It is less specific

and less direct than using *the thing*, and means 'one thing among others':

Something *I mustn't forget is my umbrella. (or *What I mustn't forget is my umbrella.*)*

Something *you need to know is that Kate is not very well at the moment.*

Basic Usage Of The Relative Clause In English

Relative Pronouns can cause trouble in English, specially when they are in unusual forms, such as “**whom**” or “**whose**”. And there is another problem: when to use **which** and when to use **that**? It might be useful what patterns you are dealing with. Here are 7 clear guidelines with examples to help you.

1. The Relative Pronoun as Subject
2. The Relative Pronoun as Object
3. The Relative Pronoun as a Possessive
4. Relative clauses starting with a Preposition
5. More complex structures
6. Defining and non-defining relatives, and punctuation.
7. Relative clauses which qualify a whole sentence, not just a Noun.
8. Exercise

1. The Relative Pronoun As Subject

When the Relative Pronoun is **Subject** of a clause and refers to a **human**, the Relative Pronoun **who** is generally used. **Examples:**

The **man** **who** lives next door is eighty-two.

I know **someone** **who** eats red hot chilli peppers.

Sometimes, **who** is replaced by **that**, especially in American English and in spoken language: **The boy** **that** lost his watch was careless.

However, **The boy** **who** lost his watch was careless. would be the right one, according to strict grammar rules.

After the antecedent **those**, **who** a Relative Pronoun is almost always required: **Those** **who** can swim should go first.

If the relative is the **subject** of a clause and refers to a **lifeless** antecedent, **which** or **that** must be used.

Examples: **The book** **that** is on the table is mine.

The book **which** is on the table is mine.

Omission of the Relative Pronoun (also called “zero pronoun”) As **Subject** of a clause, the Relative Pronoun **can never be omitted**.

Following particular feature is most disturbing for Chinese learners of English: The Relative Pronoun can be completely omitted in certain cases! Consequence: Students often do not recognise the relative clause. **Examples:**

~~The book is on the table is mine~~ is quite impossible, whilst

The book on the table is mine is perfectly acceptable.

2. The Relative Pronoun As Object

When the Relative Pronoun is the **Direct Object** of the clause, and refers to a **human**, the Pronoun used is either **whom** or **that**.

Examples: **The man** **whom** I saw yesterday is rich.

The man **that** I saw yesterday is rich.

Alternatively, the Relative Pronoun can be omitted, particularly in spoken language:

The man I saw yesterday is rich.

Note: **Whom** is not used very often, while **that**, or the entire omission of the Relative Pronoun, are much more common.

When a **lifeless Object** is referred to, the same rules apply, except that **whom** is never used: it is replaced by **which**. **Examples:**

*The book **that** I was reading was very interesting,* or
*The book **which** I was reading was very interesting,* or
The book I was reading was very interesting are all possible

Omission: when it is the Object of the relative clause, the Relative Pronoun can often be omitted, particularly in spoken English.

3. The Relative Pronoun As A Possessive

Whose is required with both **living** and **lifeless** antecedents: it is the only derivative of **who** which can refer to **living beings** and **lifeless things**.

Examples: *I know someone **whose** sister is a nurse.*
*The man **whose** car I borrowed is very rich.*
*I chose the set **whose** price was reduced.*

4. Relative Clauses Starting With A Preposition:

Note how to form relative clauses after Prepositions: **Preposition + which** for **lifeless Objects**, **Preposition + whom** for **people**.

Examples:

*The man **with whom** I was talking was angry.*
*The chair **on which** I sat down collapsed.*

5. More Complex Structures

Examples:

Preposition + possession: *The player **on whose** skills the match most depended, was the goalkeeper.*

Selective possession: *The café, **most of whose** customers had deserted it, had to close.* *The writer, **the first of whose** books had been a bestseller, was a coal miner.*

6. Defining And Non-Defining Relative Clauses.

A “**Defining relative clause**” is one which is essential for the understanding of a statement. **Example:** *Protestors **who** smash windows will be arrested.*

In this example, it is clear that “**all** protestors who smash windows” will be arrested. The word “protestors” in this example is restricted by the relative clause that defines it. **Commas are not required** before and after the relative clause.

In a “**non-defining relative clause**”, the relative clause is **not** essential for an understanding of the sentence: **Examples:** *Protestors, **who** are mostly aged under 30, want to express an opinion.*

In this example, the *question of age* is not an essential bit of information. The relative clause can be omitted without making the sentence meaningless. In cases like this, **commas are usually required** before and after the relative clause.

Compare these two examples: *People **who** eat too much tend to have poorer health.* *Sportsmen, **who** pay attention to their diet, are not usually over-weight.*

**7: Relative Clauses Which Qualify
A Whole Sentence, Not Just A Noun:**

The relative clause is introduced by **which**, never ~~that~~ or ~~what~~.

Examples

He drank too much, **which** is why he was sick.

It was raining yesterday, **which** was rather a pity.

8. Exercise

Sometimes it is a good idea to let the students do exercises. Here we can employ two different methods.

This exercise has two parts. Each part can work as work as exercise as well as key for the other part: The first part shows you two sentences per each number. The student will required to join those two sentences to a relative clause. The second part then is the key to the first part. Example:

0. Everybody went to the party. They enjoyed it very much.

Everybody who went to the party enjoyed it.

But the second part has also an exercise function although it is meant as the key to the first part. Here the student is required to do the whole thing the other way round and split each relative clause into two normal sentences as we can find them in Part 1. So each part functions here as the key for the other!

Exercise, Part 1

Please join these sentences by means of Relative Pronouns:

1. A man gave me this address. I met him on the train.

The man _____

2. These people work in the office. They are very friendly.

The people _____

3. Those are the shops. They don't take credit cards.

Those are _____

4. A student came late. I borrowed her pen.

The student _____

5. You gave me an umbrella. I lost it.

I lost _____

6. I slept in a bed. It was rather uncomfortable.

The bed _____

7. Everybody went to the party. They enjoyed it very much.

Everybody _____.

8. The cup was on the table. I had tea in it.

The cup _____.

9. I bought a computer. It was broken.

The computer _____

10. I'm looking for a woman. She is a computer designer.

The woman _____

11. The man was English. I wanted to meet him.

The man _____

12. I saw a film. It was about the Second World War.

The film _____

13. Mike had a dog. It was very unpleasant.

The dog _____

14. We saw the boy. His father was a writer.

We saw _____

15. I talked to a man. His wife had died the year before.

I talked _____

16. The body belonged to an old man. It was found yesterday.

The body _____

17. The flight was delayed. I wanted to travel on it.

The _____

18. You bought the painting. I wanted it.

I wanted _____

19. This is the chair. My parents gave it to me.

This is _____

20. He's the person. His car was stolen.

He is _____

21. I borrowed some money from Mary. I lost it.

I lost _____

22. This is the story of a man. His wife suddenly loses her memory.

This is _____

23. The form is on the shelf. You must fill in the form.

The form _____

24. The gambler is an Arab. He is losing one hundred pounds.

The gambler _____

25. The car was Susan's. It was stolen yesterday.

The car _____

26. I went to see the doctor. He told me to rest for a few days.

The doctor _____

27. Susan Wright is married to a tycoon. He's the owner of an oil company.

The tycoon _____

28. The man has been accused of murder. The police arrested him.

The man _____

29. An architect gave me this address. I met him at the bakery.

The architect _____

30. He fell in love with Mary. She left him after a few weeks.

He fell in love _____

31. This is Mars. It is the only planet where life is likely.

This is Mars _____

32. The agency sent Mary Johnson. We didn't like her.

We didn't like _____

33. Boswell wrote a fine biography of Johnson. His own life was far from admirable.

Boswell _____

34. This is the man. I met him in Paris.

This _____

35. David Cameron lives here. He is the prime minister of the UK.

David Cameron _____

36. This is the hospital. I was born here.

This _____

37. She's the woman. She telephoned the police.

She is _____

38. He's the person. He wanted to buy your house.

He _____

39. I threw out my computer. It never worked properly.

I _____

40. This is the lion. It's been ill recently.

This _____

41. The man was badly injured. He was driving the car.

The man _____

42. The children broke my window. They live in the next street.

The children _____

43. That's the woman. I was telling you about her.

That's _____

44. Your mother wasn't very polite. I spoke to her.

Your mother _____

45. The machine cost the least. It worked better than the others.

The machine _____

46. Some people hate animals. I don't understand them.

I don't _____

47. The stereo doesn't work properly. I bought it last week.

The stereo _____

48. I have two brothers. They are working as architects at the moment.

I have _____

49. This is the shop. They are selling things half the price.

This _____

This _____

50. I shouted at a man. He didn't come back again.

The man _____

51. I dropped a television. It never worked again.

The television _____

52. I hired a machine. It was broken.

The machine _____

53. She bought some clothes. They were beautiful.

The clothes _____

54. They built a wall. It fell down after three weeks.

The wall _____

55. I asked a policeman. He wasn't very helpful.

The policeman _____

56. We bought a car. I didn't really like it.

I didn't _____

Exercise, Part 2

Please split each relative clause into two normal sentences
(get rid of the Relative Pronouns if there are any)

(also key to Part 1) :

1. The man I met on the train gave me this address.
2. The people who work in the office are very friendly.
3. Those are the shops that/which don't take credit cards
4. The student whose pen I borrowed came late.
5. I lost the umbrella you gave me.
6. The bed I slept in was rather uncomfortable.
7. Everybody who went to the party enjoyed it.
8. The cup where I had tea was on the table
9. The computer I bought was broken
10. The woman I'm looking for is a computer designer.
11. The man I wanted to meet was English
12. The film I saw was about the second world war
13. The dog Mike had was very unpleasant

14. We saw the boy whose father was a writer.
15. I talked to a man whose wife had died the year before.
16. The body which/that was found yesterday belonged to an old man.
17. The flight I wanted to travel on was delayed.
18. I wanted the painting you bought.
19. This is the chair my parents gave me.
20. He is the person whose car was stolen.
21. I lost the money I had borrowed from Mary.
22. This is the story of a man whose wife suddenly loses her memory.
23. The form you must fill in is on the shelf.
24. The gambler who is losing one hundred pounds is an Arab.
25. The car which was stolen yesterday was Susan's.
26. The doctor I went to see told me to rest for a few days.
27. The tycoon Susan Wright is married to is the owner of an oil company.
28. The man the police arrested has been accused of murder.
29. The architect I met at the bakery gave me this address.
30. He fell in love with Mary, who left him after a few weeks.
31. This is Mars, which is the only planet where life is likely.
32. The agency sent Mary Johnson, who we didn't like.
33. Boswell, whose own life was far from admirable, wrote a biography of Johnson.
34. This is the man I met in Paris.
35. Juan Carlos d Borbón, who is the king of Spain, lives here.
36. This is the hospital where I was born.
37. She is the woman who telephoned the police.
38. He is the person who wanted to buy your house.
39. I threw out my computer, which had never worked properly.
40. This is the lion which/that has been ill recently.
41. The man who was driving the car was badly injured.
42. The children who live in the next street broke my window.
43. That's the woman I was telling you about.
44. Your mother, who I spoke to, wasn't very polite.
45. The machine which/ that cost the least worked better than the others..
46. I don't understand people who /that hate animals.
47. The stereo I bought last week doesn't work properly.
48. I have two brothers who/ that are working as architects at the moment.
49. This is the shop which / that is selling things half price.
This is the shop where they are selling things half price.
50. The man I shouted at didn't come back.
51. The television I dropped never worked again.
52. The machine I hired was broken.
53. The clothes she bought were beautiful.
54. The wall they built fell down after three weeks.
55. The policeman I asked wasn't very helpful
56. I didn't really like the car we bought.

The English Relative Clause In Detail

This part has been designed for teachers and advanced students in order to demonstrate the functions in detail.

Variations of the Relative Pronoun may be encountered in the spoken and informal English, but the most common distribution of the forms of Pronouns in relative clauses are as follows:

	Restrictive		Nonrestrictive	
	Human	Nonhuman	Human	Nonhuman
Subject	<i>who, that</i>	<i>which, that</i>	<i>who</i>	<i>which</i>
Object of Verb	<i>who, whom, that, Ø</i>	<i>which, that, Ø</i>	<i>who, whom</i>	<i>which</i>
Attached Object of Preposition	<i>whom</i>	<i>which</i>	<i>whom</i>	<i>which</i>
Detached Object of Preposition	<i>who, whom, that, Ø</i>	<i>which, that, Ø</i>	<i>who, whom</i>	<i>which</i>
Possessive	<i>whose, of whom</i>	<i>whose, of which</i>	<i>whose, of whom</i>	<i>whose, of which</i>

Relative clauses in the English language are formed principally by means of Relative Pronouns. The basic Relative Pronouns are *who*, *which*, and *that*; *who* also has the derived forms *whom* and *whose*. Various grammatical rules and style guides determine which relative

Pronouns may be suitable in various situations, especially for formal settings. In some cases the Relative Pronoun may be omitted and merely implied ("This is the man [that] I saw", or "This is the putter she wins with").

English also uses free relative clauses, which have no antecedent and can be formed with the Pronouns such as what ("I like what you've done"), and who and whoever.

What is an antecedent? In grammar, an antecedent is an expression (word, phrase, clause, etc.) that gives its meaning to a pro-form (pronoun, pro-verb, pro-adverb, etc.). A proform takes its meaning from its antecedent, e.g. Susan arrived late because traffic held her up. The pronoun her refers to and takes its meaning from Susan, so Susan is the antecedent of her.]

The 12 Main Rules Of The English Relative Cause:

The basic grammatical rules for the formation of relative clauses in English are given here. More details can be found in the sections below,

1. The basic relative pronouns are *who*, *which* and *that*. (The word *that* as described above is used as a relative pronoun; however, according to some linguists it ought to be analysed instead as a subordinating conjunction or relativiser. This is consistent with that used as a conjunction in "I said that I was tired", or implied in "I said I was tired".)

2. The relative pronoun comes at the very start of the relative clause unless it is preceded by a fronted preposition: "The bed *on which* I was lying". (In informal use it is normal to shift the preposition to the end of the clause and leave it stranded, or dangling: "The bed *which* I was lying *on*"). In formal English, and rarely, the relative clause may start with a larger phrase containing the relative pronoun after a preposition: "The bed, *the owner of which* we had seen previously, ...", or "The bed, *lying on which* was a small cat, ..."
3. *who* is used only with its antecedent referring to a person ("The man who ..."); *which*, referring to a thing ("The flowers which ..."); *that*, referring to either a person or thing ("The woman that ...", or "The flowers that ...").
4. In formal American English *that* is used only in restrictive relative clauses, and is not preceded by a comma ("The teacher that looks worn-out", or "The car that looks worn-out"); but *who* and *which* may be used in both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses, and may or may not take a comma ("The teacher who looks worn-out", or "My teacher, who ..."), and ("The car which looks worn-out", or "My car, which ..."). In some styles of formal English, particularly American, using *which* in restrictive clauses is avoided where possible.
5. *whom* is used only when its antecedent is the *object* of the relative clause, but *not* when its antecedent is the *subject* of a sentence or clause ("The officer nabbed the thief *whom* I saw")—antecedent *thief* is the object of the relative clause; *but not* ("The officer nabbed the thief *whom* saw me")—here the antecedent *thief* is the subject of the relative clause ("... the thief _ saw me"); *who* is correct here.
6. In formal English when a preposition in the relative clause is placed in front (fronted), *only whom* or *which* are used ("The waiter to *whom* I spoke", or "The putter with *which* she wins"—but never "... with *that* she wins"); very rarely is *who* acceptable ("The waiter to *who* I spoke")—but never ("The waiter to *that* I spoke"). With informal style the preposition is dangled (or stranded), not fronted, and *who* and *that* may also be used ("The mailman *who* I spoke to", "The mailman *that* I spoke to", as well as "The mailman *whom* ..."); and ("The putter *that* she wins with", or "The putter *which* ..."), or the zero relative pronoun is frequently used ("The putter she wins with")..
7. When *that* is used in a restrictive relative clause that is not fronted by a preposition and it is not the subject of the relative clause it may be omitted entirely. For example: ("The dentist *that* I saw" or "The dentist *that* I spoke to") may be simply shortened to "The dentist I saw" or "The dentist I spoke to". But any relative pronoun when used in a non-restrictive relative clause must not be omitted ("My dentist, *who* I saw", or "My dentist, *who* spoke to me"); nor when its preposition is fronted ("The dentist to *whom* I spoke"); nor when its antecedent is the subject of the main clause ("The dentist *that* saw me", or "The dentist *who* saw me").
8. The verb in a relative clause takes the same person (first, second, or third) and number (singular or plural) as that of the antecedent of the relative pronoun. In ("The people who were present ...") the antecedent of *who* is *people* (third person, plural), so the verb *to be* takes its form (*were*) for third person and plural number; in ("I,

who am normally very tolerant, ...”) *who*’s antecedent is the pronoun *I* (first person, singular), so the verb *to be* takes its form (*am*) for first person and singular number.

9. *whose* indicates that the antecedent has a *possessive* role in the relative clause. (“The man *whose* daughter I married”.) Unlike *who*, it can refer to things as well as persons (“I found a car *whose* battery was dead”). But using *whose* to refer to things is not common in informal English; more ‘natural’ is to restructure the thought, for example (“I found a car with a dead battery”). *Whose* is used in both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses (“The woman *whose* brother was recently married ...”, or “Sally, *whose* brother ...”) and with both fronted and stranded prepositions (“The student in *whose* car we arrived ...”, “The student *whose* car we arrived in ...”).
10. A relative clause whose antecedent is a whole proposition—that is, a matter (or person or thing) to be dealt with—is formed with *which* (“The cake was burnt, *which* made me angry”); here *which* refers to the whole circumstance of the cake being burnt.
11. A formal though less common use of *which* is as a relative *determiner* (an adjective), as in (“He painted a picture of the house, *which* painting I later destroyed”); and here *which* may refer to persons as well as things (“He painted a picture of the house, *which* painter I refused to pay”).
12. A *free relative clause* has no antecedent and takes the role of an argument in the main clause. When referring to people, it is formed with the pronouns *who*, *whom* or *whoever*, *whomever* (“I’ll take *who* you choose”, or “I’ll take *whom* you choose”, or “I’ll take *whoever* (or *whomever*) you choose”). When referring to things, it

is formed with the pronouns *what* or *whatever* (“What I said annoyed her”) where *what* stands for “the thing which ...” or “that which ...”. *Whichever* is used when referring to people or things from a known set. (These are all called compound relative pronouns.) Also, there are the determiner (adjectival) equivalents *which* or *what*, or more usually, *whichever* or *whatever* (“I’ll take *whichever* dish you choose”, or “I’ll take *whatever* dish you choose”).

Words used as *relative pronouns* have other uses in English grammar: *that* can be a *demonstrative pronoun* or a *conjunction*, while *which*, *what*, *who*, *whom* and *whose* can be interrogative pronouns.

Variables In The Basic Relative Clause

Human Or Non-Human Antecedents

The choice of Relative Pronoun typically depends on whether the antecedent is human or a thing (that is, a non-human): for example, *who* and its derivatives (*whom*, *whoever*, etc.—apart from *whose*) are generally restricted to human antecedents, while *which* and *what* and their derivatives refer in most cases to things, including animals.

The Relative Pronoun *that* is used with both human and non-human antecedents. Some writers and style guides recommend reserving *that* for non-human cases only, but this view does not reflect general use. Counter-examples can be found in the literature: Shakespeare (the man *that* hath no music in himself, in *The Merchant of Venice*), Mark Twain (The Man *that* Corrupted Hadleyburg), and Ira Gershwin

(The Man that Got Away); and informal English, especially speech, follows an actual practice (in using *that* and *which*) that is more natural than prescriptivist.

The possessive form *whose* is necessarily used with non-human as well as human antecedents because no possessive forms exist for *which* or *that*. Otherwise, to avoid, for example, using *whose* in “...the car *whose* engine blew up..” would require a periphrastic phrasing, such as “...the car the engine of *which* blew up”, or “...the car of *which* the engine blew up”.

English also makes the distinction between human vs. thing in personal pronouns (*he*, *she* vs. *it*) and certain other pronouns (such as *someone*, *somebody* vs. *something*); but some particular things—such a navy ships and marine vessels—are described with female Pronouns, and pets and other animals are frequently addressed in terms of their gender or their (anthropomorphic) ‘personhood’. Typically, it is when these things-as-human become antecedents to relative clauses that their Relative Pronouns tend to revert to *that* or *which*—for things—rather than taking the regular *who*, *whom*, etc., for human referents.

Restrictive Or Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses

The distinction between restrictive, or integrated, relative clauses and non-restrictive, or supplementary, relative clauses in English is marked by prosody (in speaking) and punctuation (in writing): a non-restrictive relative clause is typically preceded by a pause in

speech or a comma in writing, whereas a restrictive clause normally is not. Compare the following sentences, which have two quite different meanings, and correspondingly two clearly distinguished intonation patterns, depending on whether the commas are inserted:

- (1) *The builder, who erects very fine houses, will make a large profit.* (non-restrictive)
- (2) *The builder who erects very fine houses will make a large profit.* (restrictive)

The first expression refers to an individual builder (and it implies we know, or know of, the builder—the referent). It tells us that he builds “very fine” houses, and that he will make a large profit. It conveys these meanings by deploying a non-restrictive relative clause and three short intonation curves, marked-off by commas.

The second expression refers not to a single builder but to a certain category, also called a set, of builders who meet a particular qualification, or distinguishing property: the one explained by the restrictive relative clause. Now the sentence means: it is the builder who builds “very fine” houses who will make a large profit. It conveys this very different meaning by providing a restrictive relative clause and only one intonation curve, and no commas normally.

Thus, in speaking or writing English prose, if it is desired to provide a restrictive rather than non-restrictive meaning (or vice-versa) to the referent, then the correct syntax must be provided—by choosing the appropriate relative clause (i.e., restrictive or non-restrictive) and the appropriate intonation and punctuation.

To analyse whether a relative clause is restrictive or non-restrictive a simple test can be applied: remove the relative clause from the sentence; if the basic meaning of the sentence (the thought) is not changed, then the relative clause is not essential to the basic thought and is non-restrictive. If the essential meaning of the thought is disturbed then the relative clause is restrictive.

Restrictive relative clauses are also called integrated relative clauses, defining relative clauses, or identifying relative clauses. (Conversely, non-restrictive relative clauses are called supplementary, appositive, non-defining or non-identifying relative clauses.)

And some integrated clauses may not be truly restrictive; see integrated clauses, and for more information see restrictiveness.

Integrated Clauses That Are Not Restrictive

Although the term “restrictive” has become established as joined with integrated clauses, there are integrated clauses that do not necessarily express a distinguishing property of the referent. Such a (so-called) restrictive clause—actually a non-restrictive clause—is so completely integrated into the narrative and intonation of the main sentence that it appears to be restrictive, though it is not.

Examples of integrated relative clauses in this sense that are not truly restrictive:

“The father who had planned my life to the point of my unsought arrival in Brighton took it for granted that in the last three weeks of his

*legal guardianship I would still act as he directed.” and
“He sounded like the clergyman [that] he was.”*

When the “restrictive” relative clause is removed from either of the above sentences the underlying, or basic, meaning of the sentence is not disturbed—because the relative clause is not expressing a distinguishing property of the subject. Instead, here the relative clause is integrated but it is not truly restrictive.

THAT Or WHICH For Non-Human Antecedents

The distinction between the relative pronouns that and which to introduce restrictive relative clauses with non-human antecedents is a frequent point of dispute.

For clarity, we can look at a slightly modified version (that is, for the case of non-human antecedents) of the example above:

- (1) *The building company, which erects very fine houses, will make a large profit.* (non-restrictive)
- (2) *The building company that (or which) erects very fine houses will make a large profit.* (restrictive)

Of the two, it is consensus that only which is commonly used in non-restrictive clauses

The dispute concerns restrictive clauses. Both that and which are commonly used. However, for “polished” prose, many American style guides, such as the 16th edition of The Chicago Manual of Style, recommend generally avoiding which in restrictive relative clauses.

This prescriptive 'rule' was proposed as early as 1851 by Gould Brown. It was championed in 1926 by H.W. Fowler, who said, "If writers would agree to regard that as the defining [restrictive] relative pronoun, and which as the non-defining, there would be much gain both in lucidity and in ease. Some there are who follow this principle now; but it would be idle to pretend that it is the practice either of most or of the best writers." Linguists, according to Stanford linguist Arnold Zwicky, generally regard the proposed rule on not using which in restrictive relative clauses as "a really silly idea".

Which cannot correctly be replaced by that in a restrictive relative clause when the relative pronoun is the object of a non-stranded (or non-dangling) preposition. In this case which is used, as in "We admired the skill with which she handled the situation."

Zero Relative Pronoun

English, unlike other West Germanic languages, has a zero relative pronoun (denoted below as Ø)—that is, the relative pronoun is implied and not explicitly written or spoken; it is 'unvoiced'. This measure is used in restrictive relative clauses (only) as an alternative to voicing that, which or who, whom, etc. in these clauses:

Jack built the house that I was born in;

Jack built the house Ø I was born in;

He is the person who I saw; ... the person whom I saw;

He is the person Ø I saw.

The zero relative pronoun cannot be the subject of the verb in the relative clause; that is, that or who, etc., cannot be omitted (unvoiced)

if the zero pronoun would be a subject. Thus one may say:

Jack built the house that sits on the hill;

She is the one who encouraged me;

but never:

Jack built the house Ø sits on the hill;

She is the one Ø encouraged me.

Neither the unvoiced zero pronoun nor that can be used in non-restrictive relative clauses (that is, yes: "Jack, who builds houses, built the house she lives in", but never: "Jack, that builds houses, built ... "), nor in any relative clause with a fronted preposition (yes: "Jack built the house in which we live", but never: "Jack built the house in that we live"). But either can be used when the preposition is stranded, or dangled, ("Jack built the house that we live in," or "Jack built the house we live in.")

Relative clauses headed by zeros are frequently called contact clauses in TEFL contexts, and may also be called "zero clauses".

(If that is analyzed as a complementizer rather than as a relative pronoun the above sentences would be represented differently: Jack built the house that I was born in Ø; Jack built the house I was born in Ø; He is the person I saw Ø; see That a relativizer.)

Relative Pronoun As The Object Of A Preposition

A relative pronoun often appears as the object of a preposition. For formal writing or speech any relative pronoun serving as an object must be one that 'takes' the objective case, for example, whom, whose, or which, but usually not who and never that—both who and that usually take the subjective case:

Jack is the boy with whom Jenny fell in love (formal);

Jack built the house in which I was raised (formal);

but not: Jack is the boy with who Jenny fell in love (colloquial; or not okay); and never: Jack built the house in that I was raised (not okay).

In modern, especially informal, English it is not unusual to move the preposition to the end of the relative clause (as though for an independent clause) while leaving the relative pronoun at the beginning of the clause, or omitting it. Such preposition-stranding (or 'dangling' the preposition) has traditionally been deemed unacceptable by grammarians for formal style. Still, the 'stranded preposition' form has been widely used since Old English times, and is normal in colloquial speech. Here is the formal style:

Jack is the boy with whom Jenny fell in love (formal);

but any of the following might be heard in ordinary (including colloquial) speech:

Jack is the boy whom Jenny fell in love with (not formal);

Jack is the boy Jenny fell in love with (not formal);

Jack is the boy who Jenny fell in love with (colloquial);

Jack is the boy that Jenny fell in love with (colloquial).

As noted above, for a relative clause (a dependent clause) in an initial prepositional phrase the relative pronoun can never be that as the (obvious) object of a preposition. But if the relative pronoun is fixed so as to front the dependent relative clause while the preposition is detached to 'dangle' at the end, then that may be used, at least colloquially, as the relative pronoun—as in the above example: Jack is the boy that Jenny fell in love with.

THAT As A Relativiser Instead Of Relative Pronoun

The word **that** as described above is used as a relative pronoun; however, according to some linguists it ought to be analyzed instead as a subordinating conjunction or relativizer. This is consistent with that used as a conjunction in (I said that I was tired), or implied in (I said I was tired).

According to Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey Pullum that is not a relative pronoun but a subordinator, and its analysis requires a relativised symbol R as in (The film that I needed [R] is not obtainable). Here R is the covert direct object of the verb "needed" and has "the film" as an antecedent. Similar analysis is required when that is omitted and implied, as in (The film I needed is not obtainable).

Differences between that and other relative pronouns include limiting that to restrictive relative clauses and not preceding it with a preposition. Similarities between relative pronoun that and the ordinary conjunction that include using (almost invariably) the weak pronunciation /ðæt/ and frequently omitting it as implied.

Fused Relative Constructions

English allows what is called a free, fused or nominal relative construction. A relative construction consists of a relative clause that instead of attaching to an external antecedent—and modifying it as an external noun phrase—is “fused” with it; and thus a nominal function is “fused” into the resultant ‘construction’.

For example: *What he did was clearly impossible.*

Here “What he did” has the same sense as “that which he did”, or “the thing that he did”. Thus the noun phrase the thing and the relative pronoun that are ‘fused’ into what; and the resulting relative construction “What he did” functions as the subject of the verb was.

Free Relative Constructions Are Inherently Restrictive.

English has a number of “fusible” relative pronouns that initiate relative constructions, including what, whatever and whoever. But these pronouns introduce other clauses as well; what can introduce interrogative content clauses (“I do not know what he did”) and both whatever and whoever can introduce adverbials (“Whatever he did, he does not deserve this”). See -ever.

Nonfinite Relative Clauses

Some nonfinite clauses, including infinitive and participial clauses, may also function as relative clauses. These include:

infinitive clauses containing an ‘explicit’ relative pronoun (argument)—generally, but not always, fronted with a preposition—that takes an antecedent to that ‘explicit’ argument: She is a woman on whom to rely; He is the man whom to beat. (The infinitive verbs are ‘to rely’ and ‘to beat’; the antecedents are ‘woman’ and ‘man’, respectively.)

infinitive clauses presenting an ‘implied’ (and unvoiced) relative pronoun, or zero object argument, that takes an antecedent to that ‘implied’ argument: She is a woman to rely on Ø; He is the man to beat Ø.

infinitive clauses modifying the subject of the infinitive verb: She is the person to save the company.

present participle clauses having an unvoiced zero subject argument that takes an antecedent to the argument: The man Ø sitting on the bank was fishing. (These clauses are the least likely to be recognised as relative clauses.)

past participle clauses having an unvoiced zero object argument that takes an antecedent to the argument: The body found Ø here yesterday has now been identified. (This is the “reduced object passive relative clause”; see Reduced relative clause: Nonfinite types. For further examples see Uses of English verb forms: Uses of nonfinite verbs.

Adverbials

Some adverbial clauses can function as relative clauses, including:

clauses modifying a noun, with the adverb explicit or implied (and normally replaceable by a relative clause): Here's the place I live, that is, Here's the place [where] I live ("Here's the place in which I live"). Or: This is the reason we did it, that is, This is the reason [why] we did it ("This is the reason for which we did it").

clauses functioning analogously to free relative clauses, but in an adverbial role: I won't hide where you hide. Or: I'll do it how you do it, or I'll do it however you do it.

Absence Of Relative Pronoun

Not all relative clauses contain relative pronouns. Some languages, such as Mandarin Chinese, do not have relative pronouns at all, and form relative clauses (or their equivalents) by different methods – these are described in detail in the article on relative clauses. English can also make relative clauses without relative pronouns in some cases, as in "The man you saw yesterday was my uncle", where the relative clause you saw yesterday contains no relative pronoun – it can be said to have a gap, or zero, in the position of the object of the verb saw.

Role Of The Relative Pronoun

Other arguments can be relativised using relative pronouns:

Subject: Hunter is the boy who kissed Jessica.

Indirect object: Hunter is the boy to whom Jessica gave a gift./Hunter is the boy who Jessica gave a gift to.

Prepositional complement: Jack built the house in which I now live. (similarly with prepositions and prepositional phrases in general, for example These are the walls between which Jack ran.)

Possessor: Jack is the boy whose friend built my house.

In English, different pronouns are sometimes used if the antecedent is a human being, as opposed to a non-human or an inanimate object (as in who vs. which).

(5) This is a bank. This bank accepted my identification.

(6) She is a bank teller. She helped us open an account.

With the relative pronouns, sentences (5) and (6) would read like this:

(7) This is the bank which accepted my identification.

(8) She is the bank teller who helped us open an account.

In sentences (7) and (8), the words which and who are the relative pronouns. The word which is used because the bank is a thing; the word who is used because the teller is a person. Alternatively, the relative pronoun that could be used in defining (or restrictive) relative clauses in either case. For more details see English relative clauses.

PUNCTUATION – “THE NEGLECTED TOOL”

Punctuation is the name for marks used in writing. These marks help us to understand a sentence correctly. There are many kinds of punctuation. Some of them can do many things. Punctuation is “the use of spacing, conventional signs, and certain typographical devices as aids to the understanding and correct reading, both silently and aloud, of handwritten and printed texts.”

These are the 10 most common punctuation marks used in English:

Mark	Explanation
.	full stop, stop (US-English: period), point, dot
,	comma.
?	question mark or query.
!	exclamation mark (US-English: exclamtion point)
'	apostrophe.
“ ”	quotation marks, quote marks, quotes.
:	colon.
;	semicolon.
...	ellipsis.
-	hyphen.

Mandarin Chinese does not necessarily require punctuation, especially spacing. This is because the entire morpheme or word is typically clustered within a single glyph, so spacing does not help as much to distinguish where one word ends and the other starts. Chinese glyphs show the meaning of a word. This story becomes quite a different one when Chinese writers use Pinyin. We can see

clearly that their sentence would not make sense without gaps between the words and proper punctuation because Pinyin is not based on meaning but on sound.

The Romans developed a basic punctuation already in the 1st century B.C., even symbols to indicate pauses. Punctuation developed dramatically when large numbers of copies of the Bible started to be produced. Bibles used to be read aloud, so the copyists began to introduce a range of marks to aid the reader. With the invention of printing, the development of punctuation speeded up.

Many teachers neglect the significant role which punctuation plays in written English. Nowadays, punctuation is vital to disambiguate the meaning of sentences. Example: *“woman, without her man, is nothing”* (emphasising the importance of men), and *“woman: without her, man is nothing”* (emphasising the importance of women) have different meanings; as do *“eats shoots and leaves”* (which means the subject consumes plant growths) and *“eats, shoots and leaves”* (which means the subject eats first, then fires a weapon, and then leaves the scene). The sharp differences in meaning are produced by the simple differences in punctuation within the examples.

The rules of punctuation vary with language, location, register and time and are constantly evolving. Certain aspects of punctuation are stylistic and are thus the author’s (or editor’s) choice. Tachygraphic language forms, such as those used in online chat and text messages, may have wildly different rules. For English usage, see the articles on specific punctuation marks.

Rules Of Punctuation

The use of punctuation in English can change from place to place, from time to time, and from writer to writer. There are not many rules. Modern typography suggests that punctuation should only be used when there is a need. That results in less punctuation than it was the case in the early 20th century. Here I give you the rules of the most important punctuation marks with examples:

Full Stop: A “full stop” or “stop” (U.K. and Commonwealth) is called “period” in the United States or “full point” in typography and printing. A full stop is used to end a sentence. The stop plus a space separates sentences in prose, and makes it easier to read. If they are not needed, they should not be used. So, for example, in a list it is often omitted as for full stop is not needed.

A stop can show numbers that are smaller than one. With money, a period is used to show the amount of money less than one pound. For example: “*Elizabeth bought a cup of tea for £2.25*”, which means that Elizabeth paid two pounds and twenty-five pence for her drink.

A dot is sometimes used to show that a word has been made shorter. A word that is made shorter with a dot is called an abbreviation: *abbrev.* Other abbreviations: etc., eg., PS.

The words *doctor* or *mister* are often made shorter when used with a name. “*Dr. Smith*” is the name of a doctor whose last name is Smith, and “*Mr. Doyle*” and “*Mrs. Hudson*” are common ways of writing.

However, in modern typography, plain “Mr / Mrs /Ms or Dr” without a dot are more common. “Mrs” is never written in full: to write “mistress” is to mean something quite different.

Comma: A comma has many uses. Some of these are shown below:

- A. To list things: “cows, horses, pigs, and sheep”. A comma that is used within an array of adjectives: “a beautiful, large, red handbag”. Some people do not use commas in this case at all: “a beautiful large red handbag”.
- B. To separate two sentences with a conjunction: “Most birds have separate toes, but ducks’ feet are webbed”.
- C. To separate parts of a sentence: “Alice, hungry as she was, was shy to come forward and have a slice of cake”.
- D. To indicate a pause in a sentence or question: “Harry, did you remember to feed the cat?”
- E. In some European countries, commas are used, instead of a dot (here called *point*). Instead of £3.57 it would be £3,57. The sum of 17,693 as an inverse, would be 17.693.
- F. In use with decimal numbers we call it “point”: for 0.5 we say either “zero point five” or “o point five”.
- G. For internet addresses such as “*www.blabla.com*” we say “www dot blabla dot com”.

Question mark: Question marks are used when writing a question, to make an inquiry, or to ask something. Example: “*James, have you done your homework?*”, “*Elizabeth said ‘How are you?’ to James*”. “*Why is the sky blue?*”

Exclamation mark: An exclamation mark is used to write about a strong emoticon, or to write the words a person shouted. It can be used to make a statement stronger or more forceful. Example: *"Harry, come here!" "What an impolite man!" "You did a good job!"*

An exclamation mark can be used with a question mark, to make a question more forceful. Example: *"What did you do that for?!" she said angrily".*

Apostrophe: An apostrophe has two main uses:

- A. Ownership: An apostrophe can be used to show that something belongs to something else. If there is only one thing, the letter s is used after an apostrophe to show ownership. Example: *"It was the boy's dog". "We will go in John's car".* Sometimes the letter s is not used after an apostrophe to show ownership. A word will end with just an apostrophe if there is more than one thing and the word already ends with an s. Example: *"Father put away the girls' clothes"* means that Father had to tidy up for several girls. *"Father put away the girl's clothes"* means that Father tidied up for only one girl.
- B. Contractions: An apostrophe can be used to put two small words together. Two small words that are put together with an apostrophe to make one word are called contractions. This is normal in writing about a person speaking. Spoken English often uses contractions because these words are easier to say. Example: *"Cannot"* can be made into the word *"can't"*. *"It is"* can be made into the word *"it's"*, for example, *"It's a nice day today"*.

Note: Please also learn each phrase without contraction, we use them! Example: "it is warm today, is it not?" **Common mistakes when using apostrophes:** Pronouns do not have an apostrophe to show that something belongs to something else. Among these are *its, his, hers, theirs*. Example: *"The bird flapped its wings"*, not *"The bird flapped it's wings"*, *"It is his bike"*, not *"It is his's bike"*. Plurals (words referring to more than one thing) also **do not** need an apostrophe. Example: *"Apples for sale"*, not *"Apple's for sale"*.

Quotation marks: *Quotation marks* (also called *quote marks* or *quotes* for short) are used around the words that people have said, or direct speech. They are *large quotation marks* (" ") and *small quotation marks* (' ') which we use inside the large ones. They are used in pairs. Example: *"Robert said, 'James, please wash the dishes' ". " 'Today', said our teacher, 'is the first day of the rest of your lives' ".* American writers put quotation marks often after the commas and full stops. British or international writers prefer a more clearly typing in which quotation marks come before commas and full stops.

Quotation marks are also used in some other cases besides direct speech, for example around the name of a song. In these cases, even Americans write commas after the quotation marks: "After recording "Beat It", Michael Jackson went on to record several more hits."

Colon: Colons can be used at the beginning of a list. "This is a list of European countries: Portugal, Spain, France, Italy, Romania". (Colons can be used to replace a semicolon in between two parts of a sentence, but this is rather old-fashioned).

Semicolon: A semicolon has only two main uses.

- A. First, to connect two independent clauses into a single sentence.
For example: "I could tell that it was getting late; it was growing darker by the second".
- B. The second use of a semicolon is to separate items in a series when the items contain parenthetical elements within themselves.
For example: "The following crewmembers were on the bridge: James T. Kirk, captain of the Enterprise; Mr. Spock, first science officer; Mr. Sulu, helmsman; Mr. Scott, engineer; and Dr. McCoy, chief medical officer".

A semicolon is also used with a conjunctive adverb when joining two clauses. In reality, this is the same as the first rule, but it looks different enough to sometimes cause concern. For example: "The environment is the context in which all life exists; consequently, it is more than a political issue".

Ellipsis: It is used to show where words have been missed out when writing what a person said. It can also be used to show that there is more to be said but the person stopped at that point. Example: ... and one we will solve all problems. We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight in the fields ... We shall never surrender! So much more could be said ...

Hyphen: Some words can have a hyphen added to change the meaning. For example, *re-form* means "start again" but *reform* means "change". A *re-formed group* is different from a *reformed group*.

The most common and most important usage: A hyphen is used when a word is too long to fit in one row of writing. This is often done in books, magazines and newspapers to save space and paper.

Usage: A word is broken into two parts of the same length, with a hyphen at the end of the first part. The normal way is to make the first part of the word as much like a complete word as possible. And this is a rule where a syllable is important in English: **Any word MUST be properly divided by a hyphen according to its spoken syllable!**

Example:

Not correct:	What was done was not good, not useful, nor was it very helpful.
Correct:	What was done was not good, not useful, nor was it very helpful.

There are other purposes we use **hyphens** for:

- A. A hyphen is used to spell out some numbers (thirty-two, forty-nine, eighty-six).
- B. When a name for a material such as "stainless steel" is used with a word for a thing made of that material, a hyphen is used, as in "stainless-steel knife".
- C. Some words have letters at the beginning, or prefixes, these can sometimes use hyphens: un-American, anti-pollution, non-proliferation
- D. When spelling out a word: H-Y-P-H-E-N

- E. In some cases, when putting two words together would be hard to understand. For example, if something is like a shell, writing it as “shelllike” is hard to read with so many uses of the letter ‘l’. It is better to write “shell-like”.
- F. When writing words that someone has spoken when that person has difficulty speaking, as in: “I reached for the w-w-w-watering can”. This is called a stammer.
- G. When adding words that already have a hyphen. For example: two to year-old as in: “He was a two- or three-year-old dog”.
- H. If a word for a person (a name or proper Noun) is used with another name, a hyphen is used such as “the Merriam-Webster dictionary” or “the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact”.
- I. Some people take a name from the family names of both parents, or from the last name of their father and husband. For example: “John Rees-Williams”. This is not always the case, for example: “Hillary Rodham Clinton”.

List Of Punctuation Marks And Printers’ Symbols

Some of these symbols have many meanings and different designs. I give you only the most common meanings:

Punctuation:	Name(s) of punctuation and explanations
	General Punctuation:
‘ ’	<i>apostrophe</i> (grammatical omission mark).
()	brackets, <i>common brackets</i> , parentheses.
[]	brackets, angled or <i>square brackets</i> .
{ }	brackets, <i>brace brackets</i> .
}	<i>brace</i> (to enclose two or more lines).
:	<i>colon</i> (preceding explanations), ratio sign: 5:3
, ‘ ’	<i>comma</i> (normal, inverted, and Chinese comma)
— — — —	<i>dash</i> (binds parts of sentences together)
...	<i>ellipsis</i> (omission mark)
!	<i>exclamation mark</i> (marking direct speech)
.	<i>full stop</i> , period (ends the sentence)
-	<i>hyphen</i> (divides a word, or binds words together)
-	<i>hyphen-minus</i> (subtracted by, minus)
?	<i>question mark, query</i> (marking direct questions)
‘ ’ “ ” ‘ ’ “ ”	<i>quotation marks</i> (marking quotations)
;	<i>semicolon</i> (separates stronger than a comma)
/ /	<i>slash</i> , stroke, solidus
« »	<i>Romance quotation sigs</i> (French, Spanish etc)
” “	<i>German quotation marks</i>
¡	<i>inverted exclamation mark</i> (Spanish)
¿	<i>inverted question mark</i> (question start in Spanish)

<p> & * @ \ • ^ † ‡ ° " = &c ♀ ♂ x № # ÷ o a % ‰ + - ' " ° § ~ — ¡ </p>	<p>General typography and printers' symbols:</p> <p>ampersand (meaning "and": Goodall & Son)</p> <p>asterisk (referring to an explanation at the bottom).</p> <p>at-sign (used in the internet to direct e-mails)</p> <p>backslash (introduces other signs in computing)</p> <p>bullet (used instead of other enumerations)</p> <p>caret (place at which something is to be inserted)</p> <p>dagger and double dagger (meaning "obsolete")</p> <p>degree sign (compass directions and temperture)</p> <p>ditto mark (means "repeating" or "as before")</p> <p>equal sign, result sign ("equals", "equals to")</p> <p>et cetera sign, etc. (meaning "and so on")</p> <p>female (used in grammar and biology)</p> <p>male (used in grammar and biology)</p> <p>multiplication sign ("multiplied by", "times", "by")</p> <p>numero sign (stands for Nr. or No. = numero)</p> <p>American sign for number, space or pound; it is called "hashtag", "hash" or "octothorpe"</p> <p>obelus, division sign (meaning "divided by")</p> <p>ordinal indicator (also available as numbers)</p> <p>parallel mark (maths, computing, and typography)</p> <p>percent sign (meaning "one from hundred")</p> <p>per mil sign (meaning "one from thousand")</p> <p>plus and minus signs ("and", "plus"; "minus")</p> <p>prime (feet, inch; arcminute, arcsecond, 1/60 sec.)</p> <p>section sign, paragraph sign (in jurisprudence)</p> <p>tilde (omission sign, often used in dictionaries)</p> <p>underscore, understrike (to underline something)</p> <p>vertical bar, pipe, broken bar (mathematics)</p>
<p> ← → ↔ ↑ ↓ ↕ © ® ® SM TM ✱ ☞ ? ♪ ♫ ☺ ☾ ✱ ~ • </p>	<p>Direction Signs:</p> <p>left arrow (go, look back, move or go backward).</p> <p>right arrow (go forward, comes from and goes to).</p> <p>left-right arrow (go, move, look both ways).</p> <p>upwards arrow (go, move, look up to).</p> <p>downwards arrow (go, move, look down on).</p> <p>up-and-down arrow (go, move, look up and down).</p> <p>Intellectual property</p> <p>copyright</p> <p>sound-recording copyright</p> <p>registered trademark</p> <p>service mark</p> <p>trademark</p> <p>Uncommon typography</p> <p>asterism</p> <p>index sign, fist (brings attention to something)</p> <p>interrobang</p> <p>music note (symolises melodic sound)</p> <p>full moon</p> <p>new moon</p> <p>reference mark</p> <p>tie (links words or meanings together)</p> <p>Word dividers:</p> <p>interpunct (in use between words)</p> <p>space (Rule: space between words, not syllables!)</p>

T > **H** ↑ **E** >= **K** + **N** \$ **O** @ **W** <> **-** £ **H** ↑ **O** ; **W** <>
 THAT IS TO USE THE WORDS IN A SMART WAY TO
O ; **F** # **P** % **R** < **A** STOP **C** ? **T** > **I** AT **C** ? **A** STOP **L** =
 TELL HOW A THING OR A BEING WITH LIFE LOOKS LIKE
E >= **N** & **G** THEN **L** = **I** AT **S** NOT **H** ↑
 AND WHAT WE CAN SAY ABOUT THEM

Ctrl + Del

Deletes word
to the right
of the cursor

Ctrl + B
BOLD

Ctrl + X
CUT OUT

Ctrl + C
COPY

Ctrl + W
QUIT APP

Ctrl + Esc
Open Start

Windows + Shift + M
Restore

minimised
windows on
the desktop

Ctrl + PrtScr
Copy Screen

and then you
can paste it
into Word

Ctrl + A
MARK ALL

Ctrl + P
PRINT

Ctrl + Shift + Esc
Task Manager

Windows + M
Minimise all
windows

Ctrl + Backspace
Deletes word

to the left
of the cursor

Ctrl + I
ITALIC

Ctrl + V
PASTE

**Important
Keyboard
Shortcuts**

Ctrl + F
FIND

Ctrl + Alt + Delete
Task Manager

Windows + S
Open Search

Ctrl + ↑
Cursor

goes to the
start of paragraph

Ctrl + U
Underline

Ctrl + Z
BACK

Ctrl + Y
REPEAT

Ctrl + N
NEW

Ctrl + K
Hyperlink

Ctrl + M
Indent

Ctrl + L
Left align text

Ctrl + E
Center Text

Ctrl + R
Right align text

Windows + R
Open the Run
dialogue box

Ctrl + ↓
Cursor

goes to the
end of paragraph

Ctrl + Shift + →
Mark the next
block of text

Windows Open
or close **Start**

Windows + E
Open
File Explorer

Windows + I
Open Settings



The first schematic Tube map was designed by Harry Beck in 1931. It does not show the geographic locations but the relative positions of the stations, lines, and their connexions. Beck's concept has been widely adopted for other such maps around the world, Learning how to get from the journey start to its destination is a useful skill. Useful phrases in lessons: "How to get to Temple? (Where) must I change for Westminster? How far is it?" "What is the best way to Westminster Abbey? - Go to the Tube, North Wembley. Take the Bakerloo Line southbound train. At Paddington, change for the Circle Line, also southbound. Get off at Westminster. Thanks a lot!"

THE INTERNATIONAL TELEPHONE SPELLING ALPHABET

A *spelling alphabet*, *voice procedure alphabet*, *radio alphabet*, or *telephone alphabet* is a set of words used to stand for the letters of an alphabet in oral communication.

Each word in the spelling alphabet typically replaces the name of the letter with which it starts (acrophony). It is used to spell out words when speaking to someone not able to see the speaker, or when the audio channel is not clear. The lack of high frequencies on standard telephones makes it hard to distinguish an 'F' from an 'S' for example. Also, the lack of visual cues during oral communication can cause confusion. For example, lips are closed at the start of saying the letter "M" but open at the beginning of the letter "N" making these otherwise similar sounding letters more recognisable when looking at the speaker. Without these visual clues, such as during announcements of airline gate numbers "B1" and "D1" at an airport, "B" may be confused with "D" by the listener. Spelling out one's name, a password or a ticker symbol over the telephone are other scenarios where a spelling alphabet is very useful in daily life.

A *spelling alphabet* is also often called a *phonetic alphabet*, especially by amateur radio enthusiasts, recreational sailors in the United States and Australia, and several organisations. However, this conflicts with the usage of the same phrase in phonetics to mean a special notation used for *phonetic transcription* or phonetic spelling, such as the *International Phonetic Alphabet* (IPA), which is used to indicate the sounds of human speech.

"Sorry, did you say **ess** for *sugar*? Or **eff** for *Freddy*?" This example might clear up one confusion, but the best way to be sure your letters are not misheard is to use the *standard telephone spelling alphabet*. That's the one used by emergency services, police, the military, air traffic controllers, radio operators and anybody else keen to avoid misunderstandings.

Students of all ages can enjoy having a go at memorising the **alfa bravo charlie** style alphabet. It is fun and gives a useful lifetime skill, whether spelling out a name or giving a car registration number. Try out different methods to memorise the words and then discuss the best method. Some ideas: Spell out your name, and then ask students to spell out their names. Drill the alphabet around the class, forwards and backwards, picking letters at random. Repeat them over and over. Concentrate on the ones they find hardest, not just the ones they are sure of. Drill it until it is hard wired into their brains, so they produce it automatically and instantly. Use it as a homework or out-of-class exercise. But return to it throughout the term too, for revision and consolidation. You can surprise students and give them a quick test.

Talk about the way it is designed. The aim is to have things unambiguous and as clear as possible under radio interference or other poor audio conditions. Talk about how easy it would be to mishear **b** for **p** - but not **bravo** for **papa**.

Use this official alphabet approved by the International Civil Aviation Organisation and UN agencies:

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

Character	Sounds as in Pinyin:	International Code Word	Pronunciation as English:	Chinese Spelling Code
A	ei	Alfa, Alpha	al fah	Aiya
B	bi	Bravo	brah voh	Boli
C	si	Charlie	char lee	Ciqi
D	di	Delta	dell tah	Desheng
E	i	Echo	e koh	Egu
F	ef	Foxtrot	foks trot	Fuzhuang
G	zhi	Golf	golf	Geming
H	(h)eizh	Hotel	hoh tell	Heping
I	ai	India	in dee ah	I: Yifu
J	zhei	Juliet	jew lee et	Ji..
K	kei	Kilo	key loh	Keren
L	el	Lima	lee mah	Leguan
M	em	Mike	mike	Mofan
N	en	November	no vem ber	Nali
O	ou	Oscar	oss kah	Ouyang
P	pi	Papa	pah pah	Polang
Q	kiu	Quebec	kueh bek	Qi..
R	ar	Romeo	row me oh	Riguang
S	es	Sierra	see air rah	Sixiang
T	ti	Tango	tang go	Tebie
U	yu	Uniform	you nee form	U: Weida
V	vi	Victor	vik tah	V: Wudao
W	dabel-yu	Whiskey	wiss key	W: Wuzhuang
X	egs	X-ray	eks ray	Xi..
Y	wuai	Yankee	yang key	Yisheng
Z	zed	Zulu	zoo loo	Zidian

Digit	Sounds as in Pinyin:	International Code Word	Pronunciation as English:	Chinese Equivalent
0	ze ro	Zero	zee-ro	líng
1	won	One	wun	yī / yāo
2	tu	Two	too	èr / liǎng
3	tri	Three	tree	sān
4	foa	Four	fow-er	sì
5	faif	Five	fife	wǔ
6	siks	Six	six	liù
7	se ven	Seven	sev-en	qī
8	eit	Ait, Eight	ait	bā
9	naina	Nine	nine	jiǔ
,,	koma	comma	komma	shí
..	stop	stop	stop	jiùhào
100	hun dred	Hundred	hun-dred	yībǎi
1000	tou sand	Thousand	thou-sand	yīqiān
.	point	point	point	lùndiǎn

Exercise example for your spelling conversation: *"What is your name?" "My name is Yan Junmeng". "How do you spell your family name, please?" "That's Y as in Yankee, A as in Alfa, N as in November". "And how do you spell your given name?" "J as in Juliet, U as in Uniform, N as in November, M as in Mike, E as in Echo, N as in November and G as in Golf". "Can you spell that again please?" "Ok, my family name: Yankee-Alfa-November, and my given name Juliet-Uniform-November-Mike-Echo-November-Golf. Y-A-N and J-U-N-M-E-N-G [wy-ei-en and djei-u-en-em-e-en-dji]". "I have got it, thank you very much!"*

NUMERALS

It always makes sense to teach the numerals in one of the first lessons. By doing this the teacher has the chance to explain one great difference between Chinese and English: "The Chinese word form is based on ONE. It means that Chinese words have generally only one grammatical form. This is the reason why the word order is so important in Chinese. The English word form, on the other hand, is based on TWO. It means that an English Noun has a Singular form and might have a Plural form too: book – books; it might have a form for male persons as well as another form for females: actor – actress. It means that a verb has a Present form and might have a Past form too: can – could. And it means that all English words which you can find in a dictionary may even have other forms: have – has, our – ours."

Together with the numbers we focus on words and sentences in Singular and plural. There are much more number words in English than in Chinese. The numbers from zero up to twenty require twenty-one different words in English, plus more words for the tens, e.g. 'forty'. The number 0 can have at least five distinguished forms (zero, nought, naught, nil, cipher), each one is in use for another purpose. The English Ordinary Numbers are represented by different words as well. Chinese counting system is fairly easy, logical and straightforward and is strictly decimal, while English is based on a "dozen". That is why the Chinese student has a difficult task on hand.

The Cardinal Numbers from 0 to 10

Numbers	English	Chinese	Pinyin
0	zero, nought	零 / 〇	líng
1	one	一 / 幺	yī / yāo
2	two	二 / 两	èr / liǎng

3	three	三	sān
4	four	四	sì
5	five	五	wǔ
6	six	六	liù
7	seven	七	qī
8	eight	八	bā
9	nine	九	jiǔ
10	ten	十	shí

The Ordinal numbers from First to Tenth

Numbers	English	Chinese	Pinyin
1st	first	第一	dì yī
2nd	second	第二	dì èr
3rd	third	第三	dì sān
4th	fourth	第四	dì sì
5th	fifth	第五	dì wǔ
6th	sixth	第六	dì liù
7th	seventh	第七	dì qī
8th	eighth	第八	dì bā
9th	ninth	第九	dì jiǔ
10th	tenth	第十	dì shí

The Cardinal Numbers from 11 to 22

Numbers	English	Chinese	Pinyin
11	eleven	十一	shí yī
12	twelve	十二	shí èr
13	thirteen	十三	shí sān
14	fourteen	十四	shí sì
15	fifteen	十五	shí wǔ
16	sixteen	十六	shí liù

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17	seventeen	十七	shí qī
18	eighteen	十八	shí bā
19	nineteen	十九	shí jiǔ
20	twenty	二十	èr shí
21	twenty-one	二十一	èr shí yī
22	twenty-two	二十二	èr shí èr

The Ordinal Numbers from eleven to twenty-second

Numbers	English	Chinese	Pinyin
11th	eleventh	第十一	dì shí yī
12th	twelfth	第十二	dì shí èr
13th	thirteenth	第十三	dì shí sān
14th	fourteenth	第十四	dì shí sì
15th	fifteenth	第十五	dì shí wǔ
16th	sixteenth	第十六	dì shí liù
17th	seventeenth	第十七	dì shí qī
18th	eighteenth	第十八	dì shí bā
19th	nineteenth	第十九	dì shí jiǔ
20th	twentieth	第二十	dì èr shí
21st	twenty-first	第二十一	dì èr shí yī
22nd	twenty-second	第二十二	dì èr shí èr

The Cardinal Numbers from 30 to 120

30	thirty	三十	sān shí
40	forty	四十	sì shí
50	fifty	五十	wǔ shí
60	sixty	六十	liù shí
70	seventy	七十	qī shí
80	eighty	八十	bā shí
90	ninety	九十	jiǔ shí

99	ninety-nine	九十九	jiǔ shí jiǔ
100	one hundred	一百	yī bǎi
101	one hundred and one	一百零一	yī bǎi líng yī
110	one hundred and ten	一百一（十）	yī bǎi yī(shí)
111	one hundred and eleven	一百一十一	yī bǎi yī shí yī
120	one hundred and twenty	一百二十	yī bǎi èr shí

The Cardinal Numbers from 200 to 1 000 000 000

200	two hundred	二百	èr bǎi
999	nine hundred and ninety-nine	九百九十九	jiǔ bǎi jiǔ shǐ jiǔ
1 000	one thousand	一千	yī qiān
1 001	one thousand and one	一千零一	yī qiān líng yī
1 010	one thousand and ten	一千零一十	yī qiān líng shí
1 100	one thousand one hundred	一千一百	yīqiānyībǎi
9 999	nine thousand nine hundred and ninety-nine	九千九百九十九	jiǔ qiān jiǔ bǎi jiǔ shí jiǔ
10 000	ten thousand	一万	yī wàn
1 000 000	one million	一百万	yī bǎi wàn
100 000 000	one hundred million	一亿	yī yì
1 000 000 000	one billion	十亿	shí yì

The Use Of Number Words And Phrases

Chinese students are irritated by the clumsy and illogical construction of English **Cardinal Numbers** which dates back thousands of years. Chinese numbers are strictly decimal, English number words (just like the division of the year in 12 months, and the day and night in 12 hours each) come from a time in which “the dozen” (12) was prevalent. So we say *eleven* instead of “oneteen”, and *twelve* instead of “twoteen”. From 20 we count regularly and say “twenty-one” for 21, etc. An older kind of counting is based on the German counting system: “one-and-twenty”, etc. We still use the latter in certain documents!

The English numbers have the form of **Adjectives** and **Nouns** as well as **Verbs** and **Adverbs**. They can be **definite** as well as **indefinite**. Even the indefinite Articles represent a number: *a, an = one*. To express negative situations we use negative number words: *no, not a; not any, no-one, nothing, not one, none*.

The **Ordinal Numbers** are **Adjectives**: *first, prime, second, third, fourth, fifth, last*. With definite article they turn into **Nouns**: *the first, the prime, the second, the third, the fourth, the fifth, the last*.

Cardinal Numbers, just as **Ordinal Numbers** can appear **as Nouns**, particular when we want to name the number itself or something that bears this number. Examples with definite Article: *the cipher, the zero; the one; the two; the three; the five(r); the six; the ten(ner); the fifty; the hundred; the thousand; In Plural: the ones; the twos; five fivers*. Examples with indefinite Article: *a nought; a one; a two; a three; a four;*

a five; a six; a seven; an eight; a nine; a ten; an eleven; a twelve; a fifty; a hundred; a thousand.

It is quite possible to use a Noun as an **Adjective** in order to connect it with a numeral. I demonstrate that with the number “three”: *three-arm; three-axis; three-column; three-day; three-edge; three-digit; three-foot; three-head; three-hour; three-language; three-mast; three-month; three-page; three-part, three-percent, three-phase; three-side, three-stage; three-voice; three-week; three-year*. Other Nouns occasionally are turned into Adjectives by adding the ending **-ed** like Past Participles: *three-colour(ed); three-edge(d); three-engined; three-laned; threeleg(ged); three-line(d); three-wheel(ed); three-row(ed); three-seat(ed); three-sheet(ed); three-storey(ed)*. And these ones are Adjectives of Roman origin: *triangular; trinomial; tripartite; trisyllabic; trivalent; trice repeated*. Of course, we can use any other number: *two-voice, double voice, six-legged, five-side, four-year, 32-coloured, forty-storey(ed)*

A passive, static or existing situation can be expressed with Past Participles that serve as **Adjectives**: *halved, bisected; divided into three; divided into four; the halved cake, the bisected leaf*.

Multiplicative Numbers are used as **Adjective**: *single; double; threefold, triple, treble; fourfold, quadruple; fivefold, quintuple; sixfold, sextuple; sevenfold, septuple; eightfold, octuple; ninefold; tenfold; (one) hundredfold; (one) thousandfold; multiple times the amount; a double whisky; the triple jump hop; the triple vaccination*.

Collective Numbers are a kind of words of which we are not aware that they also belong to the category of numbers. Numbers of Germanic origin: both, the two, the one of both, the other of both, either, neither, neutral, neuter, (of) either sort, who of both? on both sides, on both sides of, both times; twin, twilight. Numbers of Greek or Roman origin: *ambidextrous, ambiguous, dualism, dialog(ue), diploma; discord, discussion, disunion, dual, hermaphrodite, hybrid.*

Particularly important are the **Number Phrases** as we use them extremely often. These **Collective Numbers** express a certain amount: *a pair of shoes, two pairs of ... , a couple of cigarettes, a happy couple; the decimal system, about ten books, umpteen books, a dozen of eggs, by the dozen, in dozens, by (their) hundreds, hundreds of, by (their) thousands, thousands of, ten of thousands of, hundred of thousands of.* They can express time: *a ten-day period, fortnightly, bimonthly, bimestrial, a quarter of a year, a half-year, in half a year, nine months, biennium, triennium, four-year period, five-year period, seven-year period, decennium, decade, twenty-year period, century, millennium.* And **Collective Numbers** are in use to name people: *duo, duet, trio, quartet, quintet, sextet.*

Another kind of numbers are the so-called **Distributive Numbers**. They indicate correlations or connexions between two things or living beings: *each one, in twos, two of, in threes, three of, in fours, four of, line up in threes! we are four of us, three at a time, each third man, three litre per person; one portion a head; 20% per capita; the per capita income; twenty Dollars a kilo, every five minutes, twice a/per week, two times per week; one after the other, two steps at once.*

When enumerating or specifying facts we usually use the **Numeral Adverbs**: *firstly, in the first place; secondly, in the second place; thirdly, in the third place; fourthly, in the fourth place; next; penultimately, in the place before last; lately, recently; lastly, in the last place; at last, finally, further.* Remember: An Adverb is not only a single word, it could be also an entire phrase, and in this form it often refers to the contents of the whole sentence or clause!

Events that happen time and again are expressed with the so-called **Repeating Numbers**. They also work as **Adverbs**: *once, one time; twice; three times, trice; four times; five times; six times; seven times; eight times; nine times; ten times; eleven times; twelve times; thirteen times; nineteen times; twenty times; twenty-one times; thirty times; hundred times; five hundred times; one thousand times; two thousand times; twice as much; three times as much; once more; once again; some other time; umpteen times.* After the question "how many times?" we may hear: (for) the first time; the second time; the third time; the fourth time; the next time; the next but one; the last time; the last but one; the last time, recently; for the umpteenth time; (for) the last time.

You may be surprised, we even have Numerals that work as **Verbs**: *to simplify; to double; to treble; to quadruple; to quintuple; to sextuple; to septuple; to octuple; to multiply (by); to diminish (to); to reduce (to); to lessen; to decrease.* And, of course, we can express **partitions** or **divisions** with such a Verb: *to halve, to bisect; to divide into two (parts); to divide into three (parts); to divide into quarters, to quarter.*

Practising Numbers

This is a rather conventional practice you can use for students of any age and level.:

How many apples are there?

There is one apple

There are two apples

How does the first apple look like?

The first apple is red

How does the second apple look like?

The second apple is green

Who is (the) first?

John is first / John is the first one

Frank is second / Frank is the second one

James is third / James is the third one

How much money do you have?

I have 325 Pounds and 40 Pence.

I have 518 Dollars and 88 Cents.

I have 413 Euros and 16 Cents

But when you want to make your lesson interesting you should teach your students how to deal with numbers. Begin it with writing on the blackboard something like this: $5 + 5 = ?$ Depending on age and level you will get some answers. Practise it by enlarging the numbers. Go over to an example with "minus": $12 - 6 = ?$ Probably you might get less answers here. Then introduce "times" and "divided by". Use always the common expressions first. Try the others later on.

How To Deal With Basic Arithmetic Operations

It's important to know the right vocabulary when speaking about mathematics in class. It is even more important when you go to the market and you need to explain to the grocer why his bill is wrong. This chapter provides vocabulary for basic calculations. So you can explain to the grocer what calculation is the right one.

The Basic Arithmetic Operations are easy to express. The **first** given examples here are always the most common ones: "five and five is ten". Some of the other expressions, such as "twelve subtracted by six equals to six" may belong to the jargon of highly educated people. So make sure that you know at least the first examples!

5 + 5 = 10 五加五等于十 wǔ jiā wǔ děngyú shí	five and five is ten. five plus five is ten. five plus five equals (to) ten. five added by five equals to ten. five and five makes ten. five and five is the same as ten.
12 - 6 = 6 十二减六等于六 shíèr jiǎn liù děngyú liù	twelve minus six is six. twelve less six is six. twelve subtracted by six equals to six. twelve take away six is six.
3 x 3 = 9 三乘三等于九 sān chéng sān děngyú jiǔ	three times three is nine. three by three is nine. three multiplied by three is nine.

$12 \div 4 = 3$ 十二除 (以) 四等于三 shíèr chú (yǐ) sì děngyú sān	twelve divided by four is three. twelve shared by four is three. twelve split into four is three. We also can say it the other way round: Three into twelve gives you four. Three goes into twelve four times. Three fits into twelve four times.
$3 < 5$ 三小于五 sān xiǎoyú wǔ	three is less than five. three is smaller than five
$6 > 3$ 六大于三 liù dàyú sān	six is more than three. six is greater than three. six is bigger / larger than three.
$4 + 1 \leq 6$ 四加一小于等于六	four plus one is less than or equal to six. sì jiā yī xiǎoyú děngyú liù
$5 + 7 \geq 10$ 五加七大于等于十	five plus seven is equal to or greater than ten. wǔ jiā qī dàyú děng yú shí
$12 \neq 15$ 十二不等于十五	twelve is not equal to fifteen. shíèr bù děngyú shí wǔ
$6 \times 8 - 3 = 45$ 六乘八減三等于四十五	six multiplied by eight minus three is forty-five. six times eight take away three is forty-five. liù chéng bā jiǎn sān děngyú sishíwǔ
$4 + 8 \div 2 = 6$ 四加八除以二的商等于六	four plus eight divided by two equals six. sì jiā bā chúyǐ èr de shāng děngyú liù

$43 \div 6 = ???$ 四十三除以六等于六分之四十三 sìshísān chúyǐ liù děngyú liù fēn zhī sìshísān	six into forty-three won't go. (Of course, if you wanted to be really exact, you could say: "Forty-three divided by six equals seven point one six six six six... (7.166666....) but such exact calculations are usually not necessary in most people's everyday lives).
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For any unspeakable number like 800,000,000,000,000 (an 8 with 14 zeros) or 8^{14} we say "**eight (raised) to the power of fourteen**" or for 3^3 we say "**three (raised) to the third power**", which is 27.

Fractions:

$\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$	one half 二分之一 èr fēn zhī yī
$\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$	one third 三分之一 sān fēn zhī yī
$\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{4}$	one quarter, one fourth 四分之一 sì fēn zhī yī
$\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{8}$	one eighth 八分之一 bā fēn zhī yī
$\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{2}{3}$	two third 三分之二 sān fēn zhī èr
$\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{3}{8}$	three eighth 八分之三 bā fēn zhī sān
$\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$	three forth 四分之三 sì fēn zhī sān
$\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{5}{8}$	five eighth 八分之五 bā fēn zhī wǔ
$\frac{7}{8}$, $\frac{7}{8}$	seven eighth 八分之七 bā fēn zhī qī
%	per cent 百分之 bǎi fēn zhī
‰	per mil 千分之 qiān fēn zhī
$1 \frac{1}{2}$	one and a half
$2 \frac{1}{4}$	two and a quarter, two and a / one fourth
$3 \frac{1}{3}$	three and a third, three and one third
$4 \frac{2}{3}$	four and two thirds
40%	forty per cent
344‰	three hundred and forty-four per mil, or 34.4% (= thirty-four point four percent)

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Fractions can be expressed in several different ways.

Example: one half or a half is 0.50 (speak: o point fifty) or 50% (speak: fifty per cent) or 500‰ (speak: five hundred per mil). Here are the descriptive names of a number of important numerical expressions:

Speed: 100 mph	one-hundred <i>miles per hour</i> (or: ... an hour)
Speed: 160 km/h	one-hundred and sixty <i>kilometres per hour</i>
Tel. 0171 665 0222	<i>oh-one-seven-one-double six-oh-triple two</i>
Decimal 0.87	<i>oh</i> (or zero) <i>point eight seven</i>
Temperature 28° C	twenty-eight <i>degrees Celsius</i> (or centigrades)
Temperature 72° F	seventy-two <i>degrees Fahrenheit</i>
Score 3 : 0	Manchester United <i>three</i> : Arsenal London <i>nil</i>
Cal. .44	Calibre (or Caliber) <i>forty-four</i>

Currencies

Symbol	In words
£ = Pound	Name: <i>Pound</i> (Sterling) or British pounds The common slang word for <i>pound</i> is "quid". Quid has no plural, so we say "200 pounds" but "200 <i>quid</i> ".
p = Penny (sing.)	The pound is fractioned into 100 pence. The single fraction is called " <i>penny</i> ". We say " <i>pence</i> " when we mean the value of more than one penny: The chocolate bar costs eighty pence. Some people say 80 <i>p</i> , because this is the way we write it on our price tags.
Pence (pl.)	The plural has two forms: pence and <i>pennies</i> . Usage: If we have 3 one-penny coins, we have 3 pennies that are worth 3 pence! In other words: what we see on a price tag is called pence , in our pockets we have pennies !

€ = Euro	Euro = Currency of the Euro-Zone (European Union)
¢ = Cent	one Cent is the one hundredth part of one Euro.
\$ = Dollar	Dollar = US, Australia, Canada, New Zealand etc.
¢ = Cent	one Cent is the one hundredth part of one Dollar.
¥ = Yuan	Yuan (the common slang word is "kuai")
Jiao	one Jiao (Slang: "mao") is the tenth part of one Yuan.
Fen	one Fen was the tenth part of one Jiao or the one hundredth part of one Yuan. The Fen is no longer in use.

Official Name	Slang Word
bank note (US: bill)	the folding stuff, the green stuff
1 pound - £1	a Quid, Fiddly or Saucepan
1 shilling	a bob (in 1970 replaced by a 5 pence)
5 pounds or 5 dollars	a fiver
5 pound note	a Spin or Deep Sea Diver
10 pounds or 10 dollars	a tenner
20 pounds or 20 dollars	a score
50 pounds	a bullseye
100 pounds	a century, a ton
1,000 pounds or dollars	a grand
1 dollar note	a buck, a single, a bone, a bean (U.S.)
2 dollar note	a greenbuck, a sick sheep (Australia)
5 dollar note	a fin, a five-spot (U.S.)
10 dollar note	a sawbuck, a ten-spot (U.S.)
20 dollar note	a Jackson / dub, 20 bones (beans) (U.S.)
100 dollars	a yard (U.S.)
5 cent coin	a nickel (U.S.)
10 cent coin	a dime (U.S.)
25 cent coin	a quarter (U.S.)

Roman Numerals

In the 11th century, "Hindu–Arabic" numerals have been introduced into Europe by Arab traders. Their arithmetic system went to Italy first. Roman numerals, the numeric system used in the ancient Roman Empire, employs combinations of letters from the Latin alphabet to signify values.

Roman numerals nevertheless proved to be very persistent, remaining in common use in the West well into the 14th and 15th centuries, even in accounting and other business records (where the actual calculations were performed by abacus). Their eventual almost complete replacement by their decimal (and therefore more convenient) Hindu-Arabic equivalents happened quite gradually; and the use of Roman numerals in some minor applications continues to this day in several niche contexts. All Roman numbers are made from these seven letter symbols:

Roman Symbol	I	V	X	L	C	D	M
Medieval Symbol	i	v	x	l	c	d	m
Value	1	5	10	50	100	500	1000

The numbers 1 to 10 can be expressed in Roman numerals as follows: **I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X**. Numbers are formed by combining symbols and adding the values. So II is two ones, i.e. 2, and XIII is a ten and three ones, i.e. 13. There is no zero in this system, so 207, for example, is CCVII, using the symbols for two hundreds, a five and two ones. 1066 is MLXVI, one thousand, fifty and ten, a five and a one.

Symbols are placed from left to right in order of value, starting with the largest. In order to avoid four characters being repeated in succession (such as IIII or XXXX) these can be written using a subtractive notation as follows: The numeral I can be placed before V and X to make 4 units (IV) and 9 units (IX respectively); X can be placed before L and C to make 40 (XL) and 90 (XC respectively); C can be placed before D and M to make 400 (CD) and 900 (CM).

An example using the above rules would be 1904: this is composed of 1 (one thousand), 9 (nine hundreds), 0 (zero tens), and 4 (four units). To write the Roman numeral, each of the non-zero digits should be treated separately. Thus 1,000 = M, 900 = CM, and 4 = IV. Therefore, 1904 is MCMIV and 2014 is MMXIV.

A few examples of their current use are: Names of monarchs and Popes, e.g. Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom, Pope Benedict XVI. These are referred to as “regnal numbers”; e.g. II is pronounced “the second”. In the USA, for people who share the same name across generations, for example William Howard Taft IV.

Roman numbers are also in use: For the year of production of films, television shows and other works of art within the work itself; as hour marks on timepieces (In this context 4 is often written IIII); page numbering of prefaces and introductions of books; book volume and chapter numbers; sequels of movies, video games, and other works (as in Jaws IV); as well as in chemistry, astronomy and pharmacy, where Roman numerals are used in some contexts, including S to denote “semi” = one half and N for “nulla” to mean “nothing”.

Metric System Versus Imperial Units

The metric system is an internationally agreed decimal system of measurement that was originally introduced in France by the French government in 1799 and quickly spread all over Europe, then to other countries.

Over the years, the definitions of the *metre* and *kilogramme* have been refined and the metric system has been extended to incorporate many more units. Although a number of variants of the metric system emerged in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the term is now often used as a synonym for “SI” or the “International System of Units”—the official system of measurement in almost every country in the world.

The basic units are called: for the length “**metre**”, for the area “**square metre**”, for the volume “**cubic metre**”, for the liquid volume “**litre**”, for the weight “**gramme**” or “gram”.

The metric system is logic and consistent in itself. It is tightly connected to the decimal system of numbers: *“A cube with the height of ten centimetres, a width of ten centimetres and a depth of ten centimetres can contain precisely one litre of water, which then has a weight of one kilogramme, when the cube is situated at average sea level altitude and has a temperature of zero degrees Celsius”.*

Now you could introduce the metric system to your students. Write the abbreviation on the blackboard and find out if and which units the students could say in English. Fill their knowledge gaps by writing the comments of the second column here. By speaking these explanations, the students learn how we describe those things.

LENGTH	
mm	one millimetre is the one-thousandth part of a metre
cm	one centimetre is the one-hundredth part of a metre
dm	one decimetre is the one-tenth part of a metre
m	one metre = 10dm or 100cm or 1000mm
km	one kilometre has one thousand metres
FLUID VOLUME	
ml	one millilitre is the one-thousandth part of a litre
l	one litre has one thousand millilitres
hl	one hectolitre has one hundred litres
WEIGHT (MASS)	
mg	one milligramme is the one-thousandth part of a gramme or the one-millionth part of a kilogramme
g	one gramme has one thousand milligrammes
kg	one kilogramme has one thousand grammes
t or tn	one tonne (or ton) has one thousand kilogrammes

Now let me describe to you the following table and how it works:

The prefixes are put in front of the measure units, such as “metre, gramme, byte, litre”, and so on. We are talking about “two kilogrammes of apples (2kg), a 4 gigabyte USB-drive (4GB), 10 hectolitre of water (10hl), or an 78 centimetres long desk (78cm)”.

We abbreviate in writing (you can see the abbreviation in the column “Sy” (= symbol) but not in speaking. So when you want say 50cm, you have to say the full word “fifty centimetres”, otherwise we might not immediately understand what you mean. When applying prefixes to derived units of area and volume, we have to say “**twenty-eight square metres**” for **28m²**, and “**one hundred cubic metres**” for **100m³**.”

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Prefix	Sy.	1000 ^m	10 ⁿ	Decimal	English
peta	P	1000 ⁵	10 ¹⁵	1000000000000000	quadrillion
tera	T	1000 ⁴	10 ¹²	1000000000000	trillion
giga	G	1000 ³	10 ⁹	1000000000	billion
mega	M	1000 ²	10 ⁶	1000000	million
kilo	k	1000 ¹	10 ³	1000	thousand
hecto	h	1000 ^{2/3}	10 ²	100	hundred
deca	da	1000 ^{1/3}	10 ¹	10	ten
		1000 ⁰	10 ⁰	1	one
deci	d	1000 ^{-1/3}	10 ⁻¹	0.1	tenth
centi	c	1000 ^{-2/3}	10 ⁻²	0.01	hundredth
milli	m	1000 ⁻¹	10 ⁻³	0.001	thousandth
micro	μ	1000 ⁻²	10 ⁻⁶	0.000001	millionth
nano	n	1000 ⁻³	10 ⁻⁹	0.000000001	billionth
pico	p	1000 ⁻⁴	10 ⁻¹²	0.0000000000001	trillionth
femto	f	1000 ⁻⁵	10 ⁻¹⁵	0.000000000000001	quadrillionth

There is another reason why you might not be understood. Although the Metric System is much easier to use, it is **not yet popular in all English-speaking countries!** We use the so-called “Imperial Units” in daily life. Our units are awkward to use and they look like this:

LENGTH		
inch (in)	1 inch = 25.4mm	12 inches fit into 1 foot
foot (ft)	1 foot = 30.48cm	3 feet (or foot) fit into 1 yard
yard (yd)	1 yard = 0.9144m	1 yard equals to about 3 feet
mile (mi)	1 mile = 1.61km	1 mile equal to 1760 yards

FLUID VOLUME		
fluid ounce	1 fluid ounce = 28.4ml	10 fl oz fit into 1 half pint
half pint (hpt)	1 half pint = 284ml	1 pint has 2 half pints
pint (pt)	1 pint = 568ml	8 pints fit into one gallon
gallon (g)	1 gallon = 4.55 litre	1 gallon has 8 pints
WEIGHT		
grain (gn)	1 grain = 0.0648g	480 grains equal to 1 pound
ounce (oz)	1 ounce = 28.3g	1 ounce has 480 grains
pound (lb)	1 pound = 454g	1 pound equals to 16 ounces
stone (st)	1 stone = 6.350kg	1 stone has 14 pounds
hundred-weight (cwt)	1 cwt = 50.802kg (US: = 45.359kg)	1 hundredweight has 112 pounds. (US: 100 pounds)

I strongly advise you to learn these Imperial Units with their equivalent in the Metric System as we use them in every part of daily life. Our young people have learnt about the Metric System at school but they might have forgotten all about it. We order **a pint** of beer in a bar, not half a litre! The same applies for temperature units. The temperature in English-speaking countries is often expressed in “**Fahrenheit**”, not in “**Celsius**”. Instead of -20°C (minus twenty degrees Celsius) you may hear -4°F (minus four degrees Fahrenheit). We need a conversion table to find out what Fahrenheit in Celsius is:

°C	°F	°C	°F	°C	°F	°C	°F
-80	-112.0	-25	-13.0	10	50.0	45	113.0
-70	-94.0	-20	-4.0	15	59.0	50	122.0
-60	-76.0	-15	5.0	20	68.0	60	140.0
-50	-58.0	-10	14.0	25	77.0	70	158.0
-40	-40.0	-5	23.0	30	86.0	80	176
-35	-31.0	0	32.0	35	95.0	90	194.0
-30	-22.0	5	41.0	40	104.0	100	212.0

DESCRIBING SHAPES, PEOPLE AND THINGS

Describing *shapes* and things is a task which is taught insufficiently in Chinese schools and therefore Chinese students consider it extremely difficult to *describe* something properly, although it is a rather simple task. I shall show you how to describe things so exactly that even a *blind* person understands you. Important *forms* or *keywords* are printed in *italics*. Let us begin with the colours.






Colours


Colour needs a *medium*: light! A colour can have *countless* different *tones*. We achieve these tones by making a *mix* of several different colours as well as by *shades*. *Brightness* and *darkness* are important *elements* of colour. The *opposite* of *pale* is *bright*. The opposite of *dark* is *light*.

Some things *have no colour* such as glass. It is *crystal clear*. We can *look through* it and therefore we call it "*transparent*". On the other hand, there are many transparent windows made of "*tinted*" glass which is very *colourful*. We have different words for "colour": *tint*, *stain*, *ink*, *dye*, *paint*. Ink is a *watery kind of* colour with which we write or draw. Children like *colouring* books. They love colourful *inkpens*. Their parents do not like the *stains* on the childrens' clothes afterwards.








Stained glass is another word for *tinted glass*. "Tint" is a shade of colour especially a pale one. "To stain" either means "to *discolour*" or to cover good colour with dirt; it can also mean "to colour" or "to dye"

textiles. Some people change their hair colour, "they *dye* their hair". Those people have *dyed* hair. If we put it very simple, white light contains the 3 *genuine* colours yellow, red and blue. All other colours are *mixed*. Now I shall describe to you the colours in full sentences so that you get a pretty good idea how to use the words:

 yellow	The yellow colour of a lemon is different from the yellow of <i>gold</i> . Gold has a <i>yellowish</i> colour. It is often called " <i>golden</i> " as in "golden crown" or "golden fingering". "Yellowish" and "golden" are <i>adjectives</i> . " <i>Blond</i> " is another adjective. It describes the yellowish hair colour of people: "The blond woman" or "the lady with the blond hair". Her <i>fair hair</i> colour is called blond. A <i>blond-haired</i> lady is called "a blonde".
 red	Red is an important <i>signal</i> colour. Many flowers have a <i>reddish</i> tone. Ladies use a reddish powder for their face makeup. We call it by its French name " <i>rouge</i> " which means "red".
 blue	Water and air are blue. Some metals also have a <i>blueish</i> or <i>bluish</i> colour, they are <i>somewhat blue</i> . The <i>blue-eyed</i> boy has blond hair.
 white	White light contains all colours. A <i>triangular prism</i> can <i>split</i> white light into yellow, red and blue. Many flowers have a <i>whitish</i> tone.
 black	Black <i>contains</i> no colour at all. Black is the darkest colour for painting. The <i>coloured</i> paste of a <i>painter</i> is called " <i>paint</i> ".

 grey	Grey is a <i>colourless mixture</i> of white and black. The wolf has <i>greyish</i> -blond fur. He has been followed by his grey shadow. The American spelling is <i>gray</i> .
 orange	Orange is a <i>mix</i> of red and yellow. A <i>painter</i> has to <i>blend</i> yellow <i>paint</i> with red paint. It is named with a French word, after the fruit
 green	Green is also a <i>mixed</i> colour. It is a <i>blend</i> of yellow and blue. Most <i>colourblind</i> people cannot <i>distinguish</i> red from green. We call it " <i>red-green blindness</i> ". Some plants and trees are " <i>evergreen</i> ". They never lose their leaves. A song which is popular for a long time is therefore also called "evergreen".
 purple	Purple is a <i>combination</i> of red and blue. When this <i>blend</i> contains <i>more blue than red</i> , we also call it "violet". A violet has such a colour and is a beautiful little flower.
 pink	Pink <i>contains</i> the colours red and white. Many roses have a pink tone. The word "rosé" is a French word for pink. Have you ever tasted French rosé wine?
 brown	Brown is a <i>compound</i> of red and green. Many people have brown hair. This colour often bears the French name " <i>brunette</i> ". "The brunette" is also a word for a <i>brown-haired</i> woman. She has <i>hazel</i> eyes, which means that her eyes are <i>brown as a hazelnut</i> . They have a <i>brownish</i> colour tone.

Shades Of Colour

 light brown	<i>Light brown</i> is my skin after a sunbath. The colour of the human skin is called " <i>complexion</i> ". The adjective is " <i>flesh-coloured</i> or " <i>skin-coloured</i> ".
 light green	Young leaves are light green. Light green plants look <i>fresh</i> . <i>Pale green</i> plants are not healthy, they might be dying.
 light blue	" <i>Turquoise</i> " [speak: turkoas] (which means "Turkish") is a French word for a light or bright bluish tone. This word came into fashion when travellers saw the Blue Mosque in Istanbul for the very first time. All <i>interior</i> walls of that mosque are <i>decorated</i> with mosaic tiles tinted in a great <i>variety</i> of beautiful blue tones.
 light yellow	When we <i>mix</i> yellow with white we call this colour " <i>beige</i> " [speak "beish"]. It is a French word for "pale yellow". A darker variety is called " <i>apricot</i> ", after a <i>plum-like</i> fruit
 dark brown	<i>Dark brown</i> is a brown colour <i>blended</i> with black. A chestnut is darkbrown. His hair has a <i>chestnut tone</i> . Some hair colours have a <i>slightly more reddish tone</i> .
 dark green	Old leaves are dark green young leaves are much <i>brighter</i> with their light green
 dark blue	The sea looks dark blue, but often has a <i>slight touch of</i> green.

Lesson on Paint and Colour

Pupils who are interested in painting find this simple lesson interesting as it combines learning English with learning a practical skill. Here they learn to mix the right paint by themselves instead of just buying them. Even the youngest students quickly grasp my explanations.

Teaching the right paint is as easy as making a simple addition, and is presented in quite the same way. We can perform the lesson in a question-and-answer play: "Mix Yellow with Red. What will we get?" Answer: "Orange!" or "Yellow and Blue is . . .?" - "Green!" or "Blue plus Red makes . . .?" - "Purple" (write blue + red = purple).

1. At first, we need to write the **3 base colours** on the board: **Yellow, Red, Blue**. These are the only 3 true colours that we cannot make from other colours!
2. Next, we write the **2 neutral colours** are **Black** and **White** also cannot be made from other colours. Write all the other colour blends like an addition. Use simple words!
3. Yellow + Red = Orange (speak: yellow **and** red **is** orange)
Yellow + Blue = Green
Blue + Red = Purple
4. Blue + White = **Light** Blue
Yellow + White = **Light** Yellow
Red + White = **Light** Red or "Pink"

5. Green + White = **Light** Green
Purple + White = **Light** Purple
Orange + White = **Light** Orange
6. Blue + Black = **Dark** Blue
Yellow + Black = **Dark** Yellow
Red + Black = **Dark** Red
7. Green + Black = **Dark** Green
Purple + Black = **Dark** Purple
Orange + Black = **Dark** Orange
- 8.. Black + White = Grey
Grey + White = **Light** Grey
Grey + Black = **Dark** Grey
9. Red + Green = Brown
Brown + White = **Light** Brown
Brown + Black = **Dark** Brown
10. Purple + Blue = Violet
Purple + Red = Wine Red or "Bordeaux Red"
Orange + Red = Red Orange

So, to describe colours in detail we use the words **light** and **dark**. When the colour is neither one or the other, we can use the word **middle**, such as in "middle blue". Of course we can mix paints in ever increasing nuances. This can involve new names such as:

How To Describe Appearance And Character

Describing people is a very common thing to do. Here I show you how we do it. The words in the same line are NO synonyms but are often used in the same or a similar context. We can use the *blue printed* expressions for praising a person. But be careful with the *red printed* ones. They should not be used directly because they can be pretty insulting. Teachers can practise the typical English “*understatement*” here by using the *opposite expression* such as *not attractive* instead of *unattractive* or *ugly*. The understatement says the same but sounds friendlier!

Appearance

attractive, good-looking, beautiful, handsome, pretty, cute, nice;
plain, plain-looking, *unattractive, ugly;*
well-dressed, nicely dressed, casually dressed, poorly dressed;
neat, clean, *untidy, dirty.*

Height

tall, pretty tall, six feet tall, short, pretty short;
average height, medium height, middle height.

Weight and Build

thin, quite thin, slim, slender, skinny, medium-build, overweight, *fat;*
obese;
strong, muscular, athletic.

Hair colour and style

dark, fair, black, red, brown, blond, chestnut brown, white, grey;
long, short, medium-length, shoulder-length;
straight, curly, wavy, thick, thinning, bald;
shiny, smooth, neatly combed;
dull, tousled, disheveled.

Eyes

blue, green, grey, brown, hazel, light-blue, dark-grey, greyish-blue,
dark;
big, bright, expressive, with long lashes.

Age

young, old, middle-aged;
twenty years old, in her thirties, about forty.

Character

pleasant personality, good-tempered, good-natured, easy-going;
quick-tempered, terrible character, bad-tempered, ill-natured;
friendly, sociable, outgoing, *unfriendly, hostile, grumpy, unsociable;*
strong, tough, independent, mature, weak, immature;
dependable, *reliable, trustworthy, honest, unreliable, dishonest;*
reasonable, sensible, unreasonable, unpredictable, impulsive;
ambitious, hard-working, energetic, *lazy;*
disciplined, organised, careful, accurate;
undisciplined, disorganised, careless, inaccurate, inattentive;
attentive, alert, perceptive, observant, insightful, thoughtful,

considerate;
aggressive, pushy, self-centred, *selfish, egoistical, inconsiderate*;
self-confident, shy, timid, modest, humble;
haughty, arrogant, impudent; stubborn, obstinate;
moody, melancholic, self-conscious, touchy, sensitive;
have a good sense of humour; to be humourous, amusing, funny,
interesting, dull, boring;
generous, unselfish, kind, kind-hearted;
economical, thrifty, stingy, miserly, greedy;
formal, official, informal, relaxed, casual;
strange, odd, weird, eccentric, crazy.

Mind

intelligent, broad-minded, quick-witted, sharp, keen, bright, quick,
agile, wise, clever;
foolish, stupid, narrow-minded, silly, daft.

Related Phrases

What does she look like?

She is young and good-looking, with dark eyes and long red hair.

He is tall and thin, with brown hair. He is twenty-five years old.

She is average height, dark-haired, quite thin, and wears glasses.

She's about fifty.

He is old, short, medium-build, with gray hair and a beard.

She has dark eyes, wavy blond hair, and a nice figure. She looks great.

He is a handsome middle-aged man. She is a pretty young girl.

How do I look?

You look splendid. You look good. You look great. You look nice. *You look terrible. You look awful.*

What is he like?

He is friendly and dependable. He is interesting and amusing.

He is smart and honest. He is also pretty humourous. I like him.

She is careless and lazy. You can't depend on her.

He is a bit grumpy. He is a hard man but fair.

She is serious, organised, hard-working, and tough.

He is old, sick, and lonely. She is a nice clever girl.

His character is terrible. He is hostile and bad-tempered. He does not have many friends.

She is knowledgeable and broad-minded, and she likes to help people in need.

What does he like?

He likes ice cream and chocolate. She likes apples and oranges.

He does not like spicy food but is rather keen on anything with a salty taste. She prefers dishes that have a sweet and sour taste.

She likes modern music. He likes old movies and classical music.

She likes to read. He likes to play with his dog.

Who does he take after, his mother or his father?

He takes after his father in appearance, but he is like his mother in character.

He looks like his mother, but he takes after his father in character.

Like his father, he is tall and handsome.

What are you interested in?

I am interested in medicine. He is interested in politics. She is interested in history. I like Fine Arts.

I am in (or *into*) computers. I am interested in sports. I am a movie fan. I like rock music. I adore classical music.

Other related words

Some of the following words are *slang* words. Use them with *caution*.

a bookworm, a history buff, a sports fan, a music fan, a movie fan, a TV addict;

a computer whiz kid, a computer freak, a number-cruncher;

a fashion-monger, a fashion plate, a dandy;

a junk collector, a pack rat, a miser, a squanderer;

a homebody, *a couch potato, lazybones*, a workaholic, a Jack of all trades;

an adventurer, a thrill seeker, *an oddball, a weirdo;*

a prude, a hypocrite, *a chronic liar, a gambler, a smooth operator, a city slicker, a simpleton;*

a superachiever, an underachiever, a winner, a loser, a tough guy, a softy;

a woman-chaser, a womaniser, a lady's man / a ladies' man, *a lady-killer;*

a black sheep, a scapegoat, a scarecrow, a white crow, a night owl.

Weight and Height

Weight

1 pound (lb.) = 0.4536 kilogrammes (kg or kilograms)

1 stone = 14 pounds = 6.350 kilogrammes

He weighs 12 stones, or

He weighs 170 pounds. (one hundred and seventy pounds) or

He weighs 77 kilogrammes. (seventy-seven kilogrammes)

Her weight is 9 stones and two pounds or

Her weight is 134 pounds. (one hundred thirty-four pounds) or

Her weight is 60.8 kilogrammes. (fifty-nine point nine kilogrammes)

Her weight is about 60 kilogrammes. (sixty kilogrammes)

Note: The Pronunciation of the numbers is indicated in brackets.

Height

1 inch (in.) = 2.54 centimetres (cm)

1 foot (ft.) = 12 in. = 30.48 cm = 0.3048 m

He is six feet tall. He is 183 centimetres tall. (one hundred eighty-three centimetres)

She is five feet three inches tall. She is five foot three.


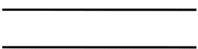
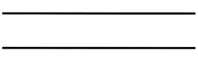
She is 160 centimetres tall. (one hundred sixty centimetres)




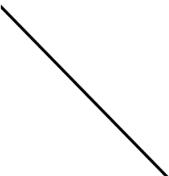

Her 12-year-old son is about 5 feet tall and weighs about 88 pounds. (eighty-eight pounds)

Her twelve-year-old son is about a hundred and fifty centimetres tall and weighs about forty kilogrammes.

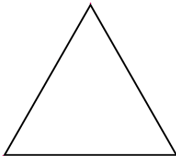
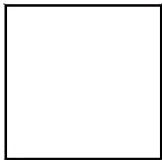
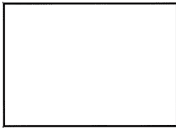
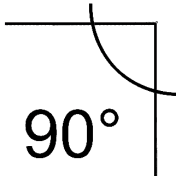
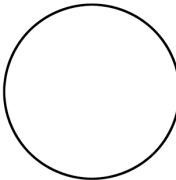
Geometrical Shapes And Names Of Things

What is our modern technology *based* on? Believe it or not: It is based on the most simple *shapes*! Even the most complicated machines are full of them: wheels, gears, rings, balls, rods, levers, cranks, tubes, hoses, cables, cylinders. Depending on what they are *used for*, they *bear* thousands of *distinguished* names. In this chapter I shall enable you to describe those things without knowing all their *proper* names. Here you will see some basic words and how to use them so that you can at least exactly describe what you see. We can do it step by step. Let me begin with the most simple forms:

	You could ask the students "How to write a Chinese 1?" Answer: Just write, on the board or on a piece of paper, a single horizontal line from left to right. It should have the <i>average length</i> of a Chinese <i>character</i> and it should be straight .
	"How to write a Chinese 2?" Answer: Write two straight, parallel, horizontal lines from left to right. We also could call it a " horizontal double line ". With this example we have learned the fundamental words parallel, horizontal and double .
	"How to write a Chinese 3?" Answer: Write three straight, parallel, horizontal lines from left to right. in the same manner as before. We also could call it " a horizontal "triple line" ".

	"How to write a Roman 1?" Answer: Write a straight vertical line from <i>top to bottom</i> . With this example we have learned the fundamental words vertical, top and bottom .
	"How to write a Roman 2?" Answer: Write two straight vertical lines from <i>top to bottom</i> . We also could call it " a vertical double line ". With this example we have learned the fundamental words vertical, top and bottom .
	"How to write a Roman 3?" Answer: Write three straight vertical lines from <i>top to bottom</i> . We also could call it " a vertical triple line ". With this example we have learned the fundamental words triple line .
	What name would we give to a straight line which we draw from one corner across the field to the opposite corner on the other side? Answer: It is a " diagonal line ".
	But: How would we call it if the same line were not straight? Answer: we should call it " a bent, diagonal line " or " a curved, diagonal line ". Of course, horizontal or vertical lines also can be <i>bent</i> or <i>curved</i> .

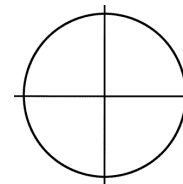
After this basic lesson on "lines", we can go to the second part of the lesson and draw some basic shapes on the board:

	A triangle is a three-sided, or as we in English say triangular (three-angular), geometric polygon. We determine such an object by angle rather than by side, because we can define the angles by degrees. A triangle, no matter how long the different sides are, has always 180 degrees in total.
	A square or quadrangle is a four-sided polygon, a plane geometric figure having 4 equal sides and 4 "right angles". Any similar object is also called square. Its Adjective is " quadrangular ". A right angle has always a 90 degrees shape.
	A rectangle is a parallelogram that has four right angles too, but one parallel side is shorter than the other. The Adjective of rectangle is " rectangular ". A rectangle also has 4 right angles.
	Draw a straight horizontal line, then draw a vertical line, from top to bottom, beginning at one end of the horizontal line. That what you have got now is an angle . This particular angle has 90° (90 degrees) and is therefore also called "right angle". Angles play the most important role in measuring shapes.
	A circle (Adjective: circular) is a closed curve of which every point has the same distance to a given fixed point, the centre. A ring looks like a circle. Some of our most significant inventions are based on the circle: the disc, the wheel, the ring, the potter's wheel, the gear, and many more.

The most sensible thing we can do now is to engage the students in an Question-and-Answer play by asking them "how many angles has a triangle?" They surely will give the right answer "three angles!". Do the same with the quadrangle and the rectangle. Student may realise that triangle, quadrangle and rectangle, all contain the word "angle". You can give them the meaning of "tri-, quadra- and rect-" now: "3, 4 and right", which are words from the Roman language Latin.

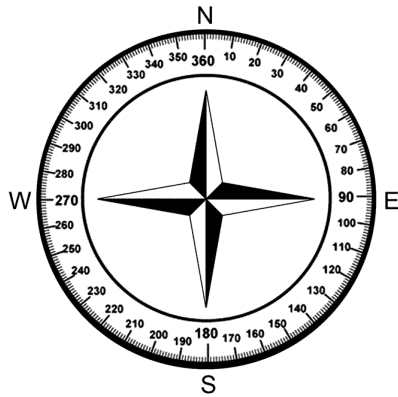
Go further by asking "how many degrees has a triangle?" As most students in China are incredibly good at mathematics, even very young students may give the right answer "180 degrees!". "And the square?" - "360 degrees!"

"How many degrees has a circle?" - "360 degrees" might be the answer. "So, how many angles has the circle then?" Here we probably hear the answer "no angle!"

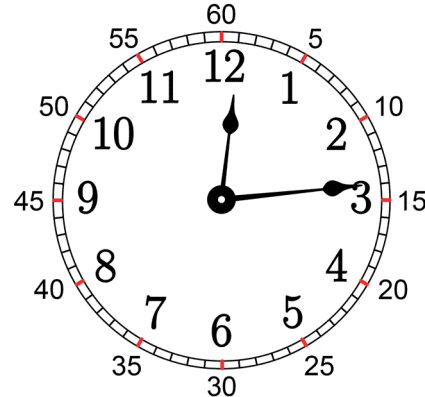


When you then draw a **vertical line** right across the **middle** of the circle and a **horizontal line**, also across the **middle** of the circle, the students begin to realise that a circle also has 4 angles that divide the circle into four equal parts: the **quarters**.

Some students may even realise that the words "quadra-" and "quarter" look similar. Both words represent the Roman word for "four"! Students may even begin to realise that those cross sections correspond to the clocktime phrases "a quarter" and "a half". This might be a good time to show your students a clockface and a compass rose. They will not fail to recognise the similarity of both.

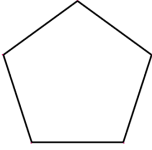
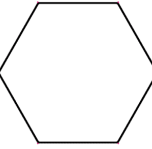
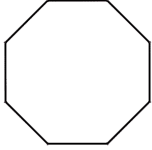


A compass rose with 360 degrees



A clock face with hours and minutes

By now, we have prepared the students for lessons on clocktime and directions. We continue with the shapes and show some more:

	A pentagon is a polygon with 5 angles . Poly is the Greek word for many and gon stands for angle. You either can learn all Greek numbers, such as penta for five, or you can say "polygon with 5 angles". The adjective is pentagonal or polygonal.
	A hexagon is a polygon with 6 angles . A hexagon looks like a honeycomb in a bees' nest. Pencils, for example, have often a "hexagonal" shape, so has the nut and the head of a screw. This shape of a screw head is convenient to grip it with a spanner.
	An octagon is a polygon with 8 angles . Other polygons are called: septagon (7 angles), nonagon (9 angles) and decagon (10 angles). The Adjective of octagon is "octagonal".

Word parts such as poly-, penta-, hexa-, septa-, or octa- are used in other words as they have meaning. Learning new words is not only about language but also about learning something about culture.

This is a good opportunity for telling the **Story of the Solar Calendar**. "Let us take the word octagon in which **oct-** obviously means **8**. Have you seen the beginning **oct** somewhere else?" We surely will get the answer "October" from some student. "What month is that?" - "The 10th month!" - "So why then is the October called "8th month" according to its original meaning?" This brings us to the question "what do the names September, November and December mean?" A look in a Latin dictionary tells us that **septe** means 7, **nove** means 9 and **dece** means 10. And why then is October, the 10th month, called "the 8th month" by the Romans? When we count the months down, we will see that March was the 1st Roman month, and this is also the reason why February is the shortest month. It is the shortest month quite simply because the Romans put the shortest month last. The Roman calendar had the following names and order (Note: February remained the last month of the calendar year until c. 450 BC., when it became the second month.):

1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Martius	Aprilis	Maius	Iunius	Quintilis	Sextilis
7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
September	October	November	December	Ianuarius	Februarius

The 6 names Quintilis, Sextilis, September, October, November, December are number words, just like in the Chinese calendar, the other 6 names are names of Roman gods.

Then in 46 BC., **Julius Caesar**, as **Pontifex Maximus** (the highest priest of the Roman Empire), reformed the calendar. The new calendar was much better than its forerunners and became known as the **Julian calendar**. Caesar calculated a year length of 365.25 days. He distributed the days to the 12 months, each either 31 or 30 days long, the February 28 days long. Every four years, the February was given 29 days. This logical system is in operation still today!

Quintilis was renamed **Iulius** (July) in honour of Julius Caesar, and Sextilis was renamed **Augustus** (August) in honour of Augustus Caesar, his nephew and adopted son, who became the first emperor of the Roman Empire in 27 BC..

1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Ianuarius	Februarius	Martius	Aprilis	Maius	Iunius
7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
Iulius	Augustus	September	October	November	December

Unfortunately, the Julian calendar had a little error: it added a leap year (with an extra day every four years) with no exceptions. The length of the Julian year was exactly **365.25** days (365 days and 6 hours), but the actual time it takes for the Earth to go around the Sun one time is **365.2425** days (365 days, 5 hours and 49 minutes). This difference is about eleven minutes each year. This made the seasons get out of track, since the real first day of spring in western Europe (the **equinox**, in which day and night have the same length) was happening earlier and earlier before the traditional **March 21** as the centuries went by. By the 1500s, it was starting around **March 11**, ten days 'too early' according to the calendar.

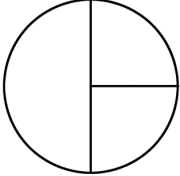


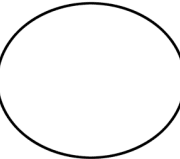
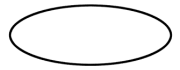
Pope Gregory XIII, as **Pontifex Maximus** (the highest priest of the Roman Catholic Church), decided in 1582 to move the calendar ten days forward, and at the same time to make sure it did not happen again. To do this, there was made an exception to the 'leap year rule' (add February 29 every four years): *There would be no February 29 for every year that ends in 00, unless it could be divided by 400.*




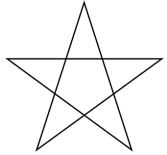
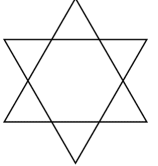
So the year 2000 was a leap year, because it could be divided by 400, but 1700, 1800, and 1900 were common years, with no February 29. The Gregorian calendar replaced the previous Julian calendar from the 15th of October 1582. This Roman Solar calendar with its Roman names for the months is in use throughout most of the world today.

After this little extra tour into our history and culture, we return to the shapes. There are two things of which we are not sure whether they belong to shapes but the **dot** and the **space** play an important role:

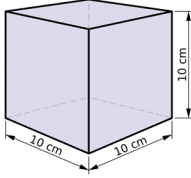
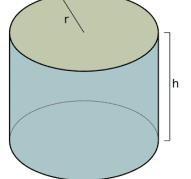
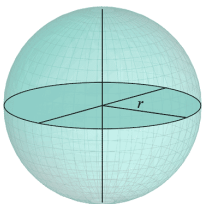

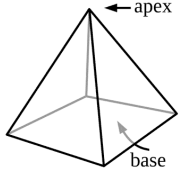
■	A point is: A dot or a tiny mark , a location, or position; A sharp <i>tapered end</i> of a pin, needle, knife, or similar object; Any dot used in writing or printing, such as a decimal point or a full stop , in some schools also called " period ".
	Space is a blank portion of an area or room, an unlimited expanse. A gap is a space between or among objects, as a hole within an object. A crack or fissure is a long gap or cleft when a material becomes splitted or damaged. Such a gap also could be called fracture when something breaks.

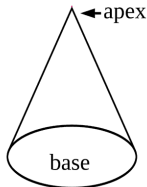
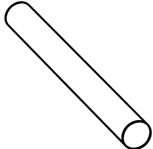
The next shapes may have significance in technologies (such as optics or astronomy) or culture:







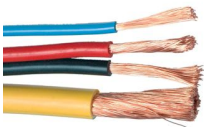



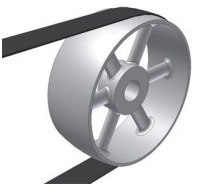
	When we divide a circle into two equal parts , we call each of those parts “semicircle” or “half circle”. We divide a circle into 360 degrees . We can use such a 360 degrees circle as a compass dial . A clock dial is divided into 12 equal main parts
	A semicircle can have the function of an arch . An arch is a curved structure that spans an opening. Such a structure is useful when we want to build light-weight bridges. The word arch comes from the Roman word arcus which means bow or bent line .
	A crescent is the biconcave shape of the Moon in its first or last quarter. It is new moon when the Moon appears as a narrow waxing crescent, and full moon when the Moon appears as a fully illuminated disc.
	An oval (Adjective: oval) has the shape of a circle in which two opposite sides are closer in distance, two other sides are farther in distance. Such a figure is also called “elipsoid”.
	An ellipse (Adjective: elliptical or elliptic) is a closed conic section shaped like a flattened circle and formed by an inclined plane that does not cut the base of the cone. Planets as Pluto and Eris have a very elliptical orbit round the sun.

	The cross-section of this lens shows us the arc-like shape. Cross-section is a word that something is cut through so that we can see its shape from the side. As you can see, the lens has the convex shape of an ellipse seen from above the equator . Convex means the surface is “curving or hollowing outwards ”. A lens can catch light and focus it on the other side
	This is the cross-section of a concave lens. Concave means “ hollowed inwards ”. These kind of lenses are used in oculars, in the eyepieces of large telescopes and microscopes.
	This is the cross-section of a concavo-convex lens having one side concave and the other side convex. We use such lenses for spectacles , specs, which you rather imprecisely might know as glasses. This shape looks like a thin crescent.
	A pentagram is also known under the name pentacle or pentangle . It is a five-pointed star which is drawn by only one line. The Adjective is “pentangular”.
	A hexagram is a star-shaped figure formed by extending the sides of a regular hexagon to meet at six points. Similar geometrical figures are called septagram (seven-pointed star) or octagram (eight-pointed star).





The next 3-d shapes play an important role in geometry or mechanics:




	<p>A cube (Adjective: cubic or cubical) is a geometrical body having six plane square faces in which the angle between two adjacent sides is the right angle. In geometry it is the volume or product of three equal factors expressed by a little raised ³.</p>
	<p>A cylinder (Adjective: cylindrical) is a geometrical body consisting of two parallel planes bounded by identical closed curves, usually circles, that are interconnected at every every point by a set of parallel lines, usually perpendicular to the planes.</p>
	<p>A sphere (Adjective: spherical or spheric) is a three-dimensional closed surface such as every point on the surface is equidistant from a given point, the centre. As a solid or body we call it ball when refering to a thing, or a globe when refering to the shape of a planet.</p>
	<p>A prism is a transparent polygonal solid, often having triangular ends and rectangular sides, for dispersing light into a spectrum or for reflecting light. It is used in binoculars, periscopes, microscopes and telescopes.</p>
	<p>In geometry, a pyramid (Adjective:: pyamidal) is a solid or body having a quadrangular or rectangular base and triangular sides that meet in a common vertex or apex. Lots of civilisations built tombs and temples in this particular shape.</p>

	<p>A cone (Adjective: conic or conical) is a solid or body consisting of a plane base bounded by a closed curve, usually a circle or an oval, every point of which is joined to a fixed point lying outside the plane of the base.</p>
	<p>A line is “one-dimensional” (“1-D” in short). A flat surface is “two-dimensional” (in short “2-D”), because it has length and width. If you could take the object in this picture into your hand we should call it “three-dimensional” or in short “3-D”, because it has length, width and height.</p> <p>How does the object in the picture look like? Answer: It looks like a massive or solid cylinder when you mean its geometric shape. When you mean the geometrical shape we call it cylinder, the physical thing itself is called a stick, a cane or a rod. The purpose and what we use the thing for decides its name</p> <p>Some ideas: a log is made from the stem of a tree. We can use it as a vertical post with a lamp on its top using it as a street lamp. We call it lamp post. If it is horizontally positioned we call it bar. Such a bar can be used as a barrier or as hand rail if it is thin and long. A big vertical cylinder made of stone is called column or pillar and it can support the roof of a building. A rod that has a wheel attached on each end is an axle. A car has two axles. We can use a stick as a lever or crank in order to transfer energy from one end to the other.</p>

	<p>A <i>hollow</i> stick is either called a <i>pipe</i> or a <i>tube</i>. Pipes transport water, fuel or any other substance. In geometry or mechanics it is called <i>cylinder</i> (Adjective: <i>cylindrical</i> or <i>cylindric</i>) and is used for machines. The tube of a gun is called barrel and the flying projectile that comes out of it is a bullet.</p>		<p>A <i>chain</i> is a flexible <i>length</i> of metal <i>links</i>, used for <i>confining</i> or <i>connecting</i> something. Chains are also used in jewellery. The links can have very different shapes, such as rings or ovals.</p>
	<p>A tube can be <i>straight</i> or <i>bent</i> like these ones here. In old times, tubes were made of <i>lead</i>, which is a grey <i>metal</i> but also a <i>poison</i> that leads to brain damage when those tubes were used as <i>water-transporting</i> pipes for drinking water. Today, most of the pipes are made of <i>plastic</i>.</p>		<p>A <i>rollerchain</i> is a chain that can connect two or more gears to <i>transfer physical power</i> from one gear to another, as in a bicycle.</p>
	<p>A flexible <i>tube</i> or <i>pipe</i> is called <i>hose</i>. The word <i>flexible</i> means that the hose is not always straight and <i>stiff</i>. It can be bend to all directions in order <i>to lead liquid</i> or <i>gases</i> to any place where it is needed. Here we can see a <i>garden hose</i>.</p>		<p>A <i>rope</i> is a fairly thick <i>cord</i> made of <i>intertwined</i> hemp or other <i>fibres</i> or of <i>wire</i> or other strong material. Sometimes it is called <i>towrope</i>, especially when we use it for <i>towing</i> (to drag or pull) a vehicle or boat by means of a <i>rope</i> or <i>cable</i>.</p>
	<p>A <i>cable</i> is a strong thick <i>rope</i>, usually made of <i>twisted</i> metal <i>wires</i>, <i>strands</i>, <i>strings</i> or hair. A wire is a <i>slender</i> flexible strand or <i>rod</i> of metal. Nowadays, we use wires for transporting <i>electricity</i>. These wires often have <i>safety covers</i> of plastic, as these wires here.</p>		<p>A <i>cord</i> is a string or thin rope of <i>twisted</i> strands. A band is such a strip of different material that should hold things together. A <i>shoe lace</i>, such as this one here, is such a band or cord.</p>
	<p>Electric wires in households and machines often have <i>plugs</i> at their ends with which the wires can be connected to a <i>socket</i> or <i>power point</i> on a wall. Sockets and plugs are made for safety reasons, as released electricity can cause injuries and death.</p>		<p>A <i>belt</i> is a flexible <i>band</i> or <i>strap</i>, typically made of leather or heavy cloth, and worn around the waist. A belt supports trousers or other articles of clothing.</p>
			<p>A belt can link two or more <i>rotating shafts</i>. Belts may be used as a <i>source</i> of <i>motion</i>, to transmit power efficiently. A <i>conveyor belt</i> is the <i>carrying medium</i> of a belt conveyor system. A belt conveyor system consists of two or more <i>pulleys</i> (also called <i>drums</i>, see picture), with an <i>endless loop</i> of carrying medium that rotates about them.</p>

The next shapes are circular. They are important in engineering, mechanics and transport. Without those things, modern technology would be impossible:

	<p>A disk is a circular or round plate. Usually it has the shape of a circle. There are discs without a hole, like this coin. Other discs have a hole in the middle. When we put such a disc on a stick (axle), it can rotate. Many useful items have the shape of a disc: turntables, ancient wheels and gears.</p>
	<p>The wheel is one of the most important inventions of mankind. Early wheels had the shape of a disc with a hole in the centre. Later inventors used only a circular rim and joined it to the hub by spokes in order to make the wheel lighter. A wheel is mounted on a shaft, which we call axle, about which it can turn or rotate, as in vehicles.</p>
	<p>A gear is a toothed wheel that engages with another toothed wheel or with a rack in order to change the speed or direction of transmitted motion. Most common device is a bicycle where the gear transmits energy via a rollerchain.</p>
	<p>A rolling-element bearing, also known as a rolling bearing, is a bearing which carries a load by placing rolling elements (such as balls or rollers) between two bearing rings. The relative motion of the pieces causes the round elements to roll with very little rolling resistance and with little sliding.</p>

	<p>A water wheel is a wheel that has blades or buckets attached to its rim. Flowing water makes this ancient kind of turbine rotate. The first modern steamships were driven by water wheels. The Romans and early Chinese used it in ships as well.</p>
	<p>A propeller is a device having blades from a central hub that is rotated by an engine to produce thrust to propel a ship or aircraft. A propeller can also be used as a "windwheel" driven by wind to collect energy, such as in an ancient windmill.</p>
	<p>A turbine is a kind of propeller with many blades with which kinetic energy of water, steam, air, is converted into mechanical energy by causing the bladed rotor to rotate. Nowadays it is used to transfer a lot of energy in power plants and aircraft</p>

Remember 3 things that work together:

In order to **measure** any **surface** we need the **square**. The equivalent unit then is called for example "**square metres, square kilometres, square feet, square miles**". We write: $20m^2$ or $46km^2$

In order to **measure** any room we need the **cube**. The equivalent unit then is called for example "**cubic metres or cubic feet**". We write: $20m^3$

In order to **measure** any **direction** or **position** we need the **angle**. The equivalent unit then is called "**degrees**". We write: 45°

Atoms, Elements, Matter, Substances and Material

Any useful English course should contain a lesson that gives learners an idea what the things are made of. *Matter* is something that makes up a *physical* object. An *element* is made of *atoms*. An Atom is the smallest *quantity* of an Element. An *electron* is an *elementary particle* that orbits the nucleus (the centre of an atom) in numbers equal to the atomic number of the element. So every atom is build like our Solar System. A *molecule* is the simplest unit of a chemical *compound* that can exist, *consisting* of two or more atoms *held together* by *chemical bonds*. So is water a *mix* of *hydrogen* and *oxygen*. Our air equally is a *mixture* of *gases* that forms the Earth's *atmosphere*. It consists chiefly of nitrogen, oxygen, argon and *carbon dioxide*.

The names of the elements often have other names in our daily life. For example: coal, plastic and diamonds are *carbon*, Steel is *iron* with a little carbon and some other *metals*. We often *mix* or *merge substances* and we call them *compound*, mixture, *combination*, *alloy* or *amalgam*.

Long time ago people invented *bronze*. It is an alloy mixed from *copper* and *tin*. Copper is red and tin is white like *silver*. Copper alone is so *soft* that we use it for making electric cables. We can *melt* or *smelt* tin in a pot over a fire at only 241 C. Bronze looks brownish and is quite *hard*. The modern golden metal called *brass* is also an alloy, but it is made of copper and *zinc*. Early metal makers had to *dig out* or *mine* their metal from the underground. With tin, they found *lead* which is very *heavy* but softer than copper. Hundreds of years ago,

people made waterpipes out of lead. They did not know that lead *poisons* brain and bones of the body. Today we use lead mainly for making bullits. Another poisonous metal is *mercury*. It is not *solid* but *liquid* at normal *room tempertures* and therefore it ideal to use it in *thermometers*. Mercury loses its *hazardous characteristic, quality, property* or *attribute* when we blend it with *gold* or *silver*. Such an *amalgam* is used then as filling for damaged teeth. Gold and Silver are valuable metals from which we make jewellery. *Platinum* also is valuable but very hard and has a very high melting point of over 2400 C. The hardest metal we use is *tungsten*. It is used for the filament, the glowing thread, in the old-fashioned light bulbs. *Glass* is *brittle* and made of sand which consists of *silicon dioxide*.

Here are some substances and what we make from them:

Aluminium - pots, pans, car parts, blackboard frames, beer cans

Carbon - coal, charcoal, mineral oil, diesel, benzine, plastic,

Copper - bronze, brass, doorhandles, lamps, screws

Gold - wedding rings, jewellery, wires at a computer chip, coins

Iron - steel, tools, arms, buildings, cars, ships, screws, nails

Silver - jewellery, cutlery, goblets, candlesticks

Titanium - aeroplanes, spacecraft, satellites, paint

Most living beings contain lots of carbon in *combination* with other elements or substances such as water and *minerals* like *calcium* or *magnesium* and even metals like iron or zinc. Lessons on *material* or *stuff* are simple and effective. The teacher just points at something and asks "What is it made of" or "What is it made from?". In the following *Periodic Table of the Elements* we can see all 118 elements.

GROUP 1		Legend:	
IA		Atomic Number	Atomic Weight
1	1.00794	Symbol	Ground-State Level
1	H 氢 ¹ S _{1/2}	Chinese Name	Electronegativity (Pauling)
1	Hydrogen*	Density (Note)	Ionisation Energy (eV)
1	0.0899 13.5984	Name (*Latin names see below)	Boiling Point (°C)
1	-259.14 -252.87	Melting Point (°C)	Crystal Structure (Note)
1	(v) 37	Atomic radius (pm) (Note)	Electron Configuration
1	1s ¹		Possible Oxidation States (Note)
1	+1,-1		
2		Phase at STP	
IIA		Gas	Liquid Solid Synthetic
3	6.941	Alkali Metals	Noble Gas
4	9.012182	Alkaline Earth Metals	Halogens
11	22.989770	Transition Metals	Non Metals
12	24.3050	Rare Earth Metals	
19	39.0983	Poor Metals	Metalloids
20	40.078		
21	44.955910		
22	47.867		
23	50.9415		
24	51.9961		
25	54.938049		
26	55.845		
27	58.932000		
28	58.6934		
29	63.546		
30	65.409		
31	69.723		
32	72.64		
33	74.92160		
34	78.96		
35	79.904		
36	83.798		
37	85.4678		
38	87.62		
39	88.90585		
40	91.224		
41	92.90638		
42	95.94		
43	98.906		
44	101.07		
45	102.90550		
46	106.42		
47	107.8682		
48	112.411		
49	114.818		
50	118.710		
51	121.760		
52	127.60		
53	126.90447		
54	131.293		
55	132.90545		
56	137.327		
57	138.905		
58	140.116		
59	140.90765		
60	144.24		
61	150.36		
62	151.964		
63	157.25		
64	158.92534		
65	162.500		
66	164.93032		
67	167.259		
68	168.93421		
69	173.04		
70	174.967		
71	175.073		
72	178.49		
73	180.9479		
74	183.84		
75	186.207		
76	190.23		
77	192.217		
78	195.078		
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LESSONS ON TIME, DIRECTION AND POSITION

With this lesson you have the chance to give your students a lifetime skill they will never forget. I am talking about clock time, compass directions and finding out those directions with an analog wrist watch. Important keywords are printed in “*blue* and *italic*”. Practise them!

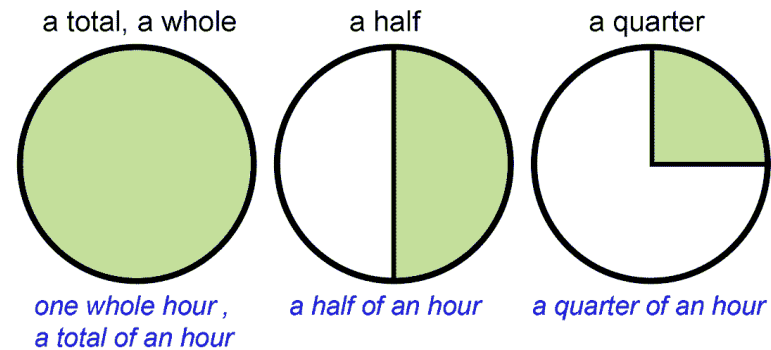
A clock is an instrument to indicate, keep, and *co-ordinate* time. The clock is one of the oldest human *inventions*, meeting the need to consistently measure *intervals* of time shorter than the natural *units*: the day; the *lunar* month; and the year. The word *clock* is derived ultimately (via Dutch and Northern French) from the Celtic words *clagan* and *clocca* meaning “bell”. A *silent* instrument missing such a *mechanism* has traditionally been known as a *timepiece*. In general usage today a “clock” refers to any *device* for *measuring* and *displaying* the time. Watches and other timepieces that can be carried on one’s person are often distinguished from clocks.

A *clock face* or *dial* is the part of an analog clock (or watch) that displays the time through the use of a *fixed-numbered* dial or dials and moving hands. In its most basic form a dial looks like a circle or disk, recognised throughout the world. The *periphery* (brim or edge) of the dial is numbered 1 through 12 *indicating* the hours in a 12-hour cycle, and a short *hour hand* makes two *revolutions* in a day. A longer *minute hand* makes one revolution every hour. The face may also include a *seconds hand* which makes one revolution per minute. Digital clocks and watches do not have dials or hands but *time displays* showing numbers (*digits*).

Teaching and Learning How To Tell The Time

When you teach the time, it ought to be clear what the objective is. Of course, you could teach according to old methods, but telling the students what to say and letting them learning by heart is not very effective. If we want to enable the students to put their English to excellent use, they must *understand* the *principles*.

Along with your explanations, you can draw my sketches on a board. Time is partitioned into several different units. We move through time as a ship sails through an ocean: there is speed, there is the way behind us and the way before us. The whole or total way can be *cut* into *parts* as we can do it with a cake or one hour:

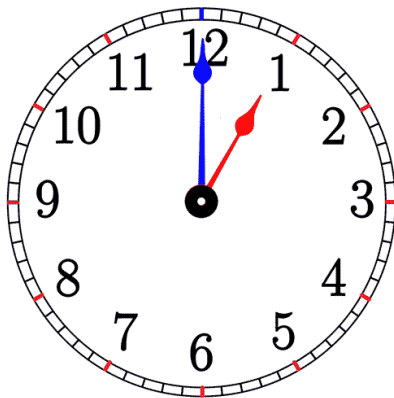


As the ship sails *to* its destination, so does the *hand* of a clock. The main destination of a *clock hand* is the full hour. Therefore we say “it is a quarter *to* one” or “a quarter *before* one” when the time’s position is yet 15 minutes away from its destination: the full hour. The word *to* tells us about the *direction*, the word *before* about the *position*. It is best to teach step by step the names of those destination first.

Step 1: The word “o’clock” means “of (the) clock”, it refers to the “clock-clock sound” of an ancient mechanical clock. Therefore the full hours are called: “one o’clock”, “two o’clock”, etc.. Let the students speak after you, then show them a clock and begin a dialogue about the time you have set. *What time is it? it is two o’clock.* And so on.

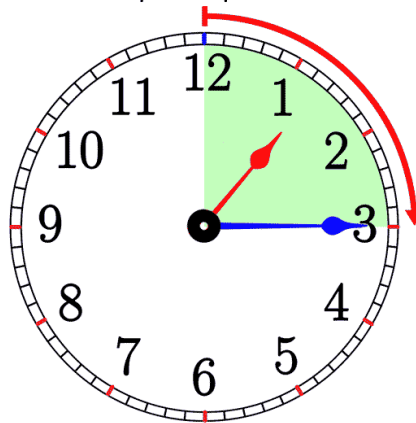
Step 2: As a ship has just **past** an island, so has the *hand of a clock past* the full hour. Therefore we say: “a quarter **past** one” or “fifteen minutes **past** one”. (Of course, we also can say “a quarter **after** one” or “fifteen minutes **after** one”.) Practise that with every hour: It is a quarter past one, ... two, ... three. And when we do not know *precisely* how many minutes have past, we might just say “it is after one”.

STEP 1
“... o’clock”



Example: “one o’clock,
two o’clock” etc.

STEP 2
“a quarter past ...”

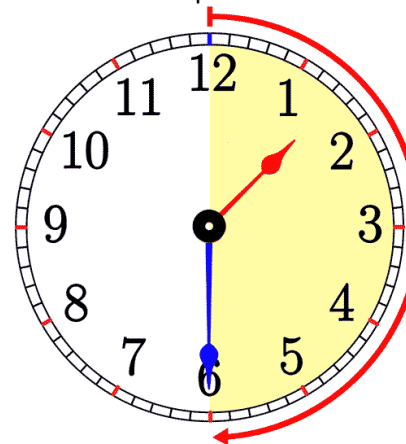


Example: “a quarter past
one, a quarter past two” etc.

Step 3: Do the same exercise with “half past”: *What time is it now? It is half past one. We have half past one.*

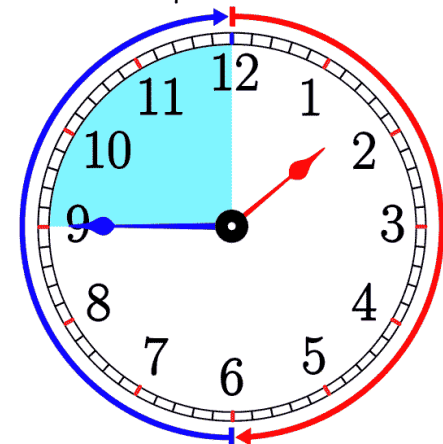
Step 4: It is useful to tell the students now that “half past” marks a *limit*. We do not say “three quarters past ...” or “forty-five (minutes) past ...”, because after the “30 limit”, the clock hand is *closer* to the next full hour! So we say “It is a quarter **to** two” or “It is 15 (minutes) **to** two”.

STEP 3
“half past ...”



Example: “half past one,
half past two” etc.

STEP 4
“a quarter to ...”



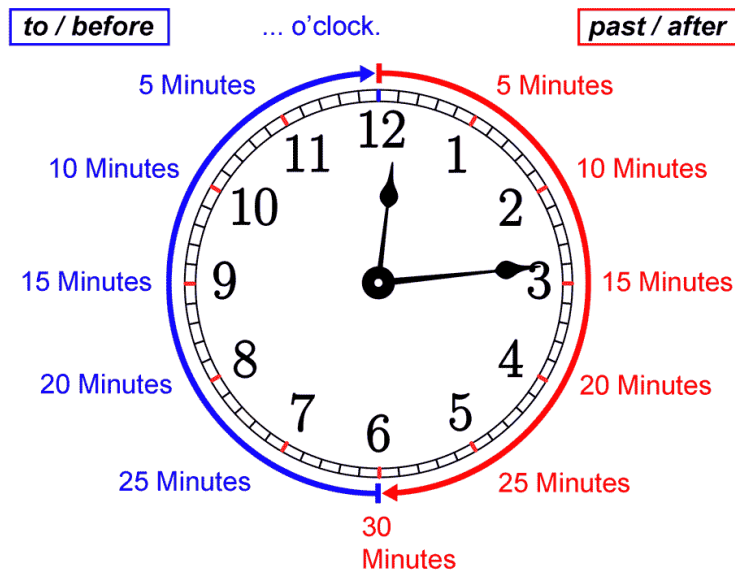
Example: “a quarter to
one, a quarter to two” etc.

Intensify your practice by changing words, because English is not a language of boring stereotypes but a language of enormous versatility. Almost every sentence or phrase can be formed differently. Give your students the chance to set themselves free from monotone “school English”. The earlier you practise different styles, the better will the students understand English later on!

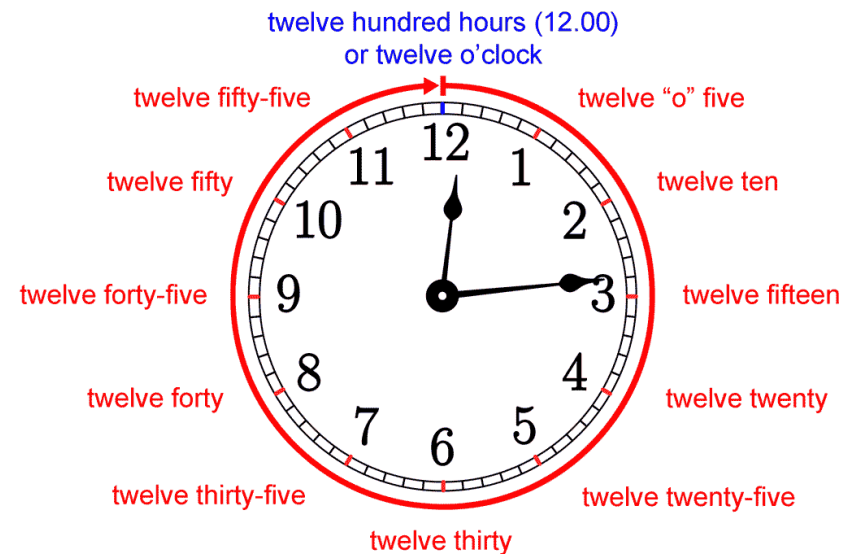
Now go over to the minutes. Here we use the same rules and say “It is five (minutes) past one”. We alternatively can say “It is five minutes

after one". We use the second form also when we guess the time: "It is after one". For the other half of the dial we would say: "It is five minutes to two" or "It is five minutes before one", "It is five minutes before two", and "It is before one" when guessing.

The day has 24 hours, but a clock dial has only 12 hours. So we have "six o'clock" twice a day. To make a difference between the first and the second 12 hours in a day, we have to say "six o'clock in the morning" or "six o'clock a.m." (6 a.m.) which means "six o'clock ante meridiem". "Ante meridiem" is Latin for "before midday". When we refer to "six o'clock in the evening" we also say "six o'clock p.m." (6 p.m.) which means "six o'clock post meridiem". "Post meridiem" stands for "after midday" or "after noon".



There are some different methods of telling the time. With the advance of railways during the mid 19th century, the first timetables appeared. The creators of those time tables wrote the time in this manner: 1.20 (or 1:20 in the US) for "twenty minutes past one", and people began to speak it as "one twenty", 2.36 "two thirty-six", 17.01 "seventeen oh one", 23.58 "twenty-three fifty-eight". When we say the time in this manner, we refer in our speech to a timetable or digital display. Teachers should teach both time telling methods.



Yet we nevertheless have another method that is employed by institutions or organisations for whom telling the time in a very precise way is essential: the armed forces, the police, and in particular aviation and spaceflight institutions. They write and say: "**oh twohundred hours**" for 02.00, "**oh onehundred and five hours**" for 01.05, "**twenty-one hundred and nineteen hours**" for 21.19.

The Time Zones Of The World

A time zone is a region that has a uniform standard time for legal, commercial, and social purposes. It is convenient for areas in close commercial or other communication to keep the same time, thus time zones tend to follow the boundaries of countries and their subdivisions.

The Earth never stands still. There are always parts of the Earth's surface that are moving out of the sunlight. Time zones give specific areas on the Earth a time of day that is earlier or later than the neighbouring time zones. This is because when it is day-time on one side of the Earth, it is night-time on the other side. There are 39 time zones dividing the Earth into different times, each with its own name, like the [North American Eastern Time Zone](#). The North American Eastern Time Zone contains large cities in North America like New York City and Miami. [Greenwich Mean Time](#) is the time in London, and is often used for things that involve more than one time zone.

Early Timekeeping

Before mechanical clocks were invented, people marked the time of day with apparent [solar time](#) (also called "true" solar time) – for example, the time on a [sundial](#) – which was different for every town or city. When well-regulated mechanical clocks became widespread in the early 19th century, each city began to use some local mean solar time.

Modern Standard Time Zones

Local solar time became increasingly awkward as rail transport and telecommunications improved, because clocks differed between places by an amount corresponding to the difference in their geographical longitude, which varied by four minutes for every degree of longitude. With the railway came the timetable. And for those timetables a country-wide standard time was needed, and for large countries such as Canada, the United States and Russia several clearly defined time zones.

The first ever created standard time was the [Greenwich Mean Time](#) (GMT) and was established in 1675 when the [Royal Observatory](#) was built as an aid to mariners to determine [longitude](#) at sea, providing a [standard reference time](#) when each city in England kept a different local time. The first adoption of a standard time for a whole country came on December 1, 1847, in Great Britain by railway companies using GMT kept by portable [chronometers](#).

What Is The Difference Between GMT And UTC?

Greenwich Mean Time (GMT) is a term originally referring to mean solar time at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich in the south-east of London, where a system was first developed for tracking the time based on the rotation of the Earth. In 1970 the [Coordinated Universal Time](#) (UTC) term was devised by an internationalist group of so-called advisory experts who have created UTC as a Political Correctness term in order to get rid of GMT when referring to a time zone.

Strictly speaking, UTC is not a time zone but an *atomic time scale* which only approximates GMT in the old sense. It is also used to refer to Universal Time (UT), which is an astronomical concept that directly replaced the original GMT. UTC is the *International Atomic Time* with a leap of 0.9 seconds added at irregular intervals to compensate for the Earth's slowing rotation. So in daily life, it does not matter if you say GMT or UTC, because here they are almost the same.

Since 1972 all official time services have broadcast radio time signals synchronised to UTC, whose time is defined by an atomic clock. Many countries now legally define their standard time relative to UTC, although many users still legally refer to GMT, including the United Kingdom itself. UTC, is used by astronomers and others who need to state the time of an event most precisely.

Daylight Saving Time

When you come to a western country one day, you might wonder what we mean by the word "summer time". The *summer time* or *daylight saving time* (DST) is the practice of advancing clocks during the summer months that have more daylight so that people get up earlier in the morning and experience more daylight in the evening. Our clocks are adjusted forward one hour near the start of spring and are adjusted backward in the autumn. The modern idea of daylight saving was first proposed in 1895 by George Vernon Hudson, and it was first implemented by Germany and Austria-Hungary starting on 30 April 1916. Many countries have used it at various times since then, most consistently since the energy crisis of the 1970s.

Standard Time Zone Of China

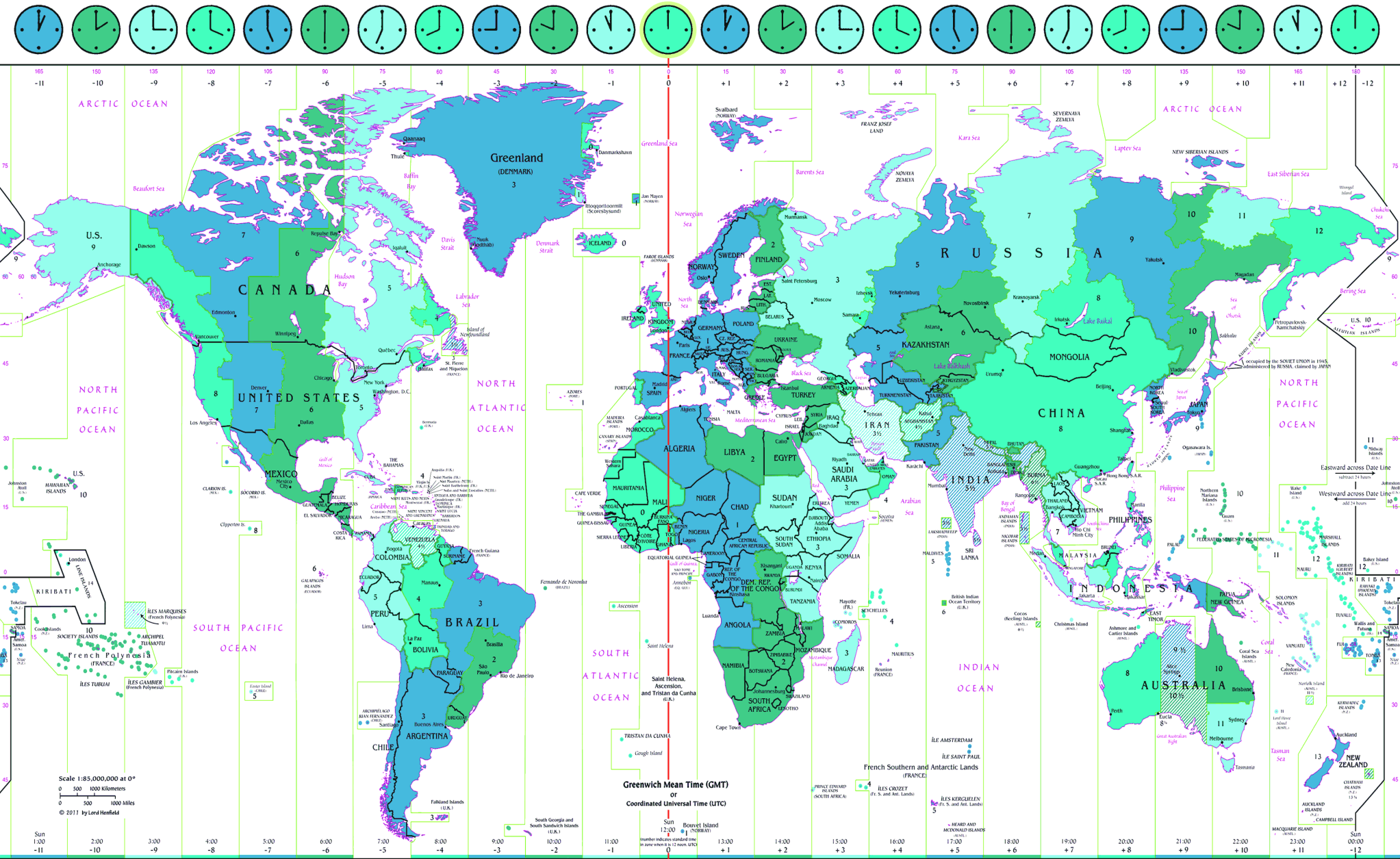
China is a huge country that geographically spans five time zones and there were five time zones in use during the Republic of China (1912–1949). Since 1949 all of China has only one single standard time, which is 8 hours ahead of GMT or UTC. It is called *Beijing Time* (sometimes known as *Chinese Standard Time*). The daylight saving time was used from 1986 to 1991 but was abandoned since then.

Although a single time zone in a country has advantages, it also can cause problems, particularly when the country is as large as China. While the daylight in the East of China (Heilongjiang) ranges from 06.54 to 15.18 in Winter (1st of January) and from 03.05 to 19.08 in Summer (1st of July), in the West of China (Tibet and Xinjiang) it ranges from 09.41 to 19.49 in Winter and from 07.40 to 21.50 in Summer. It is simply considered unnatural when the most of the morning is covered in darkness.

Although the only official time zone in China is Beijing Time, the People's Congress of *Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region*, due to its geographical location in the *westernmost* part of the country, proclaimed *Ürümqi Time* (UTC+6), two hours behind Beijing. Although this is not officially recognised, it is the only time locally in use by most residents. Most stores and government offices in Xinjiang have modified opening hours, commonly running from 10am to 7pm Beijing Time. Times for buses, trains, and other public transportation are often given in *Xinjiang time*, regardless of the ethnicity of the speaker. So, in fact, China has two timezones now.

STANDARD TIME ZONES OF THE WORLD

The Earth rotates from East to West. So, it is only 6 o'clock morning time on Sunday in Chicago (USA) when it is 12 o'clock midday time in London (UK), but it is already 8 o'clock evening time in Beijing (China). When we view the time from China, we could say, it is only 11 o'clock night time on Sunday in London when it is 7 o'clock morning time on Monday in Beijing, but it is already 5 o'clock evening time in Chicago.



Add time zone number to local time to obtain GMT. Subtract time zone number from GMT to obtain local time. WEST EAST Subtract time zone number from local time to obtain GMT. Add time zone number to GMT to obtain local time.

***Basic Geography Lesson on the Countries
main Ethnic groups, their Language and Religion***

Most Chinese students know remarkable little about the background of the so-called Western Countries. It is not enough to know that they are Christian as the 3 main Christian religions (Roman = **Roman-Catholic**, **Orthodox**, and **Protestant**) are deeply divided by conflict and war. The Roman languages **Portuguese**, **Spanish**, **Italian** and **French** are Roman, their speakers have the Roman religion. Most Germanic speakers have the Protestant religion. And the eastern European countries are ruled by the Orthodox religion.

Why do we talk about this here? This is supposed to be a book on the **English language**, is it not? Yes, it is. But it is also much more: Learning another language involves knowledge about its **culture background** too. Talking about **religion** and **beliefs** is not a modern attitude. Well, I do not care about that modern notion for at least two reasons. I think that students should be informed about any important issue, and the feedback from my students who went to the United States told me that I should pay more attention to religion and its traditions. It is an important issue of American education.

The **modern names** of nations and their languages all too often blur to what kind of language group and therefore culture they belong. The languages Portuguese, Spanish, Italian, Romanian, and French are **Roman languages**, just like their antique **ancestor Latin**. They come right out of the ancient Roman Empire.

What does this mean? It means that modern countries, in which the people speak a Roman language, still belong to the Roman culture

with all its customs, Roman laws, and traditions!

The modern languages **Greek** and **Slavonic** (in Russia, Bulgaria and Serbia), on the flipside, do represent the culture and traditions of the **Eastern Roman Empire** which lived much longer than the Western Roman Empire. The **Roman-Catholic** Church and the **Orthodox** Church fought a long time against each other for influence. The loss of life and the devastation they inflicted on one another left the survivors with a deep feeling of mistrust and distrust.

As Islamic warriors, turned into ruthless conquerors and killers in the 7th and 8th centuries, **Islam** and **Christianity** began a deadly fight against each other. This fight culminated in the crusades of the 12th and 13th centuries in which Europeans tried to recapture the Holy Land. Religious fervour and the struggle for power brought misery and devastation on an unprecedented scale to countless people.

The conflict between the **Roman-Catholic** Church and the new **Protestant** Church lasted for about 100 years. About half of Europe's population got killed, and it left the survivors with unimaginable hatred against one another. The Protestant Church prevailed in Germanic speaking areas and countries. Even when Roman-Catholics and Protestants do not kill each other anymore, they still harbour ill-feelings and prejudices against the other.

The same applies to the 2 main Islamic religions, the Sunni and the Shia. Most **Arabic** and **Turkic** speaking people follow the **Sunni Islam** while most **Persian** speakers (in Iran and Pakistan) follow the **Shia Islam**. These 2 groups are also at war right now. For example in Iraq and Syria where several Islamic groups fight against each other

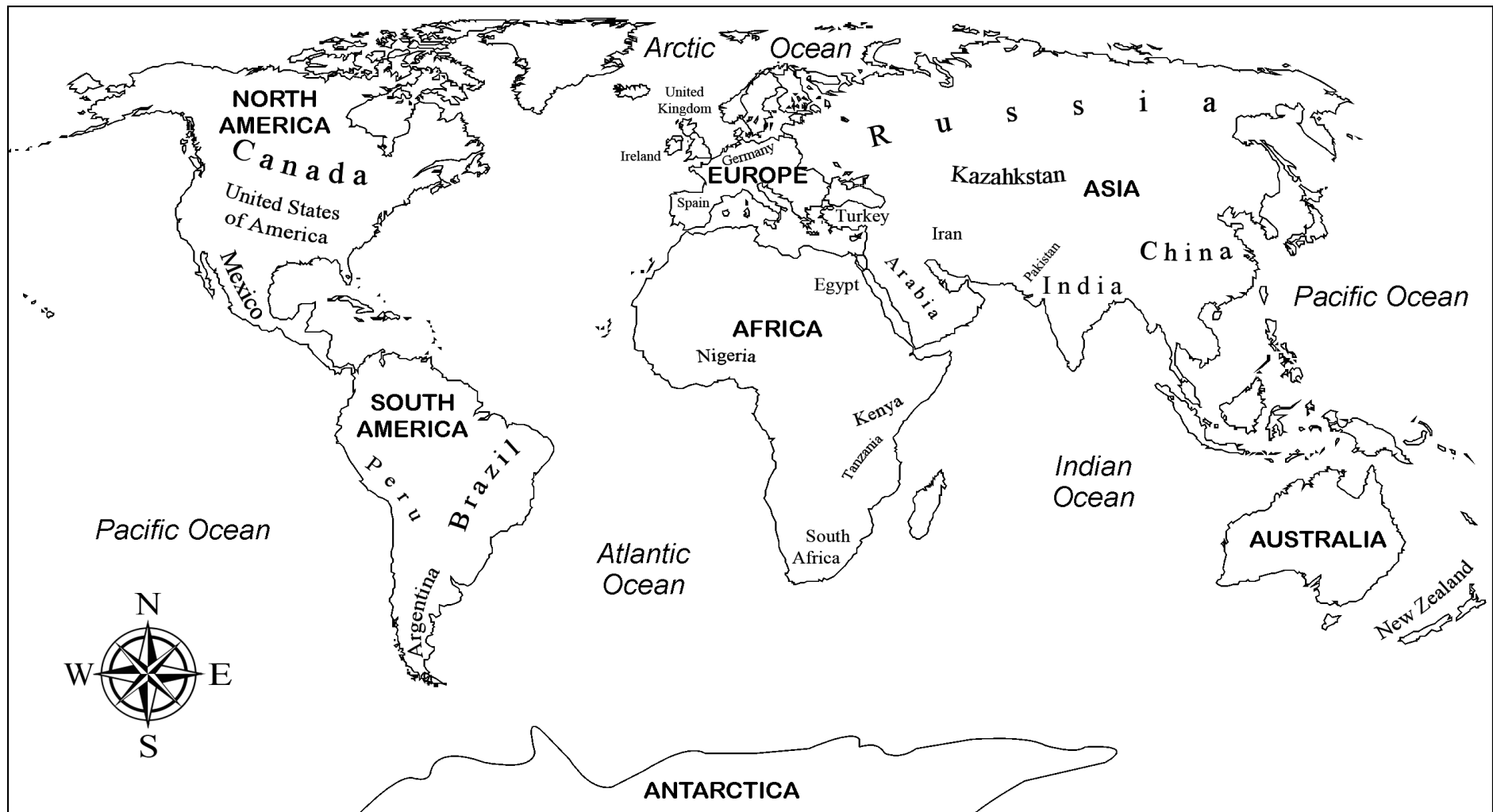
for supremacy. The question "Do you think that members of all these different religions like and trust each other after so many wars?" Make the students realise that "western people" are not just all the same!

Objective of this lesson: Learning **country names** and their **Adjectives**. Students should learn what language the people speak and what religion they have, quite simply because language and beliefs were often the only thing each new settler took to their new homeland. The categories **Language Type** and **Religion** show us the people's cultural background. When we write just "**Roman**" instead of "Roman-Catholic Church", students will immediately understand that the old Roman Empire died but its culture is still very alive today! They will also see that neighbouring nations have connexions to each other.

This lesson can be performed on a large enough blackboard. Use 2/3 of the board to draw a sketch of a world map. Use the other 1/3 for making a 6-column table as we see below. Work on the map first. Add names of some important countries during a Question-and-Answer play. "What is the largest country of South America?" - "Brazil!",

Start another eye-opening Question-and-Answer play: "What language do the people speak in Brazil?" Answer: "Portuguese!", "Why do people in Brazil speak Portuguese?" Simplified answer: "Because once they came from Portugal!" Write about 20 to 30 country names in the 6-column table: Adjectives, names for the people, language, language type, and the main religion. "Why do the people in the United States speak English?" - "Because once they came from the United Kingdom!", and so on.

Country Name	Adjective	Name for the People	Language	Language Type	Religion
Portugal	Portuguese	Portuguese	Portuguese	Roman	Roman
Brazil	Brazilian	Brazilian	Portuguese	Roman	Roman
Spain	Spanish	Spaniard	Spanish	Roman	Roman
Mexico	Mexican	Mexican	Spanish	Roman	Roman
Argentina	Argentine	Argentine	Spanish	Roman	Roman
France	French	French	French	Roman	Roman
Italy	Italian	Italian	Italian	Roman	Roman
Romania	Romanian	Romanian	Romanian	Roman	Orthodox
Greece	Greek	Greek	Greek	Greek	Orthodox
Russia	Russian	Russian	Russian	Slavonic	Orthodox
U. K.	British	British	English	Germanic	Protestant
U. S. A.	American	American	English	Germanic	Protestant
Ireland	Irish	Irish	English	Germanic	Roman
Canada	Canadian	Canadian	English / French	Germanic / Roman	Protestant / Roman
Australia	Australian	Australian	English	Germanic	Protestant
Germany	German	German	German	Germanic	Protestant / Roman
Netherlands	Dutch	Dutch	Dutch	Germanic	Protestant
South Africa	South African	South African	Dutch / English	Germanic / Germanic	Protestant
Norway	Norwegian	Norwegian	Norse	Germanic	Protestant
Arabia	Arabian	Arab	Arabic	Arabic	Sunni Islam
Egypt	Egyptian	Egyptian	Arabic	Arabic	Sunni Islam
Iran	Iranian	Iranian	Persian	Iranian	Shia Islam
Turkey	Turkish	Turk	Turkish	Turkic	Sunni Islam
Usbekistan	Usbek	Usbek	Usbek	Turkic	Sunni Islam
China	Chinese	Chinese	Mandarin / Cantonese	Chinese / Chinese	Confucian / Buddhism
Japan	Japanese	Japanese	Japanese	Japonic	Buddhism
India	Indian	Indian	English	Germanic	Hinduism



Geographical names belong to our fundamental knowledge. We can draw easily a sketchy World map on a blackboard. Begin with the old continents: Africa, Asia, Europe; The new continents are North America, South America, Australia and Antarctica; seven continents in all. Continents are separated by four main oceans: the Atlantic Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, the Indian Ocean, and the Arctic Ocean in the north. Add names of some

important countries during a Question-and-Answer play. Write in an extra 5-column table 20 country names, Adjectives, names for the people, language and the main religion. Start another eye-opening Question-and-Answer play: "Why do the people in the United States speak English?" - "Because once they came from the United Kingdom"; "Why do people in Brazil speak Portuguese?" - "Because once they came from ..."

The Geographic Coordinate System

A *geographic coordinate system* is a coordinate system that enables every location on the Earth to be *specified* by a set of degrees. A full circle can be divided into 360 *degrees* (or 360°). Today, degrees are divided further. There are *minutes*, and *seconds*; 1 minute (or 1') in this context is 1/60 of a degree; 1 second (or 1") is 1/60 of a minute. A common choice of coordinates is *latitude*, *longitude* and *elevation* (height or depth) which is called Mean Sea Level. The latitude / longitude net or "*webbing*" is known as the *graticule*.

The first coordinate is called latitude (abbreviation: Lat., ϕ , or phi). The Earth is cut up into 180 circles, from the *Equator*. The *poles* are at 90°, the North Pole is at 90° *N*(orth), the South Pole is at 90° *S*(outh). Lines joining points of the same latitude trace circles on the surface of the Earth called parallels, as they are *parallel* to the equator and to each other. The north pole is 90° N; the south pole is 90° S. The 0° parallel of latitude is the equator. The equator divides the globe into Northern and Southern *Hemispheres*.

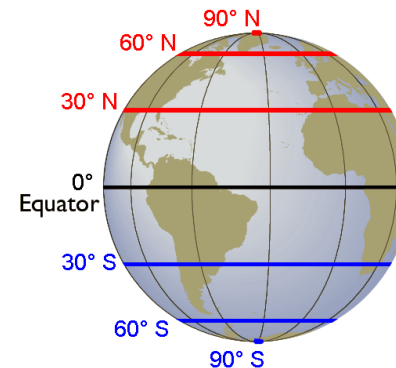
The second coordinate is called longitude (abbreviation: Long., λ , or lambda), or "meridian". A line, which was intended to *pass through* the Royal Observatory, Greenwich (a *suburb* of London, UK), was chosen as the international *zero-longitude* (or 0° longitude) *reference line*, the Prime Meridian. Then lines are drawn in a similar way; the *opposite* (or "antipodal") *meridian* of Greenwich is considered both 180° *W*(est), and 180° *E*(ast). Places to the east are in the eastern hemisphere, and places to the west are in the western hemisphere. The *antipodal*

meridian of Greenwich is both 180°W and 180°E. The *zero/zero point* is located in the Gulf of Guinea about 625 km south of Tema, Ghana.

Each location on the globe or map touches a line of latitude and a line of longitude. We need these *crossing lines* (that create an *intersection* or *grid* system) to find a place exactly. The crossing of the latitude and the longitude lines is called *coordinate*.

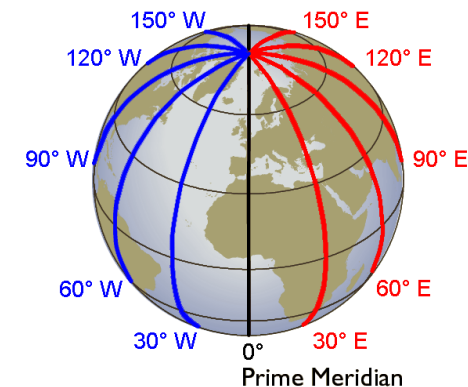
LATITUDE

Imagined lines of latitude go across the earth from East to West, but they measure the globe from South to North starting at the equator.



LONGITUDE

Imagined lines of longitude run across the globe from North to South, but they measure West and East starting at the Prime Meridian.

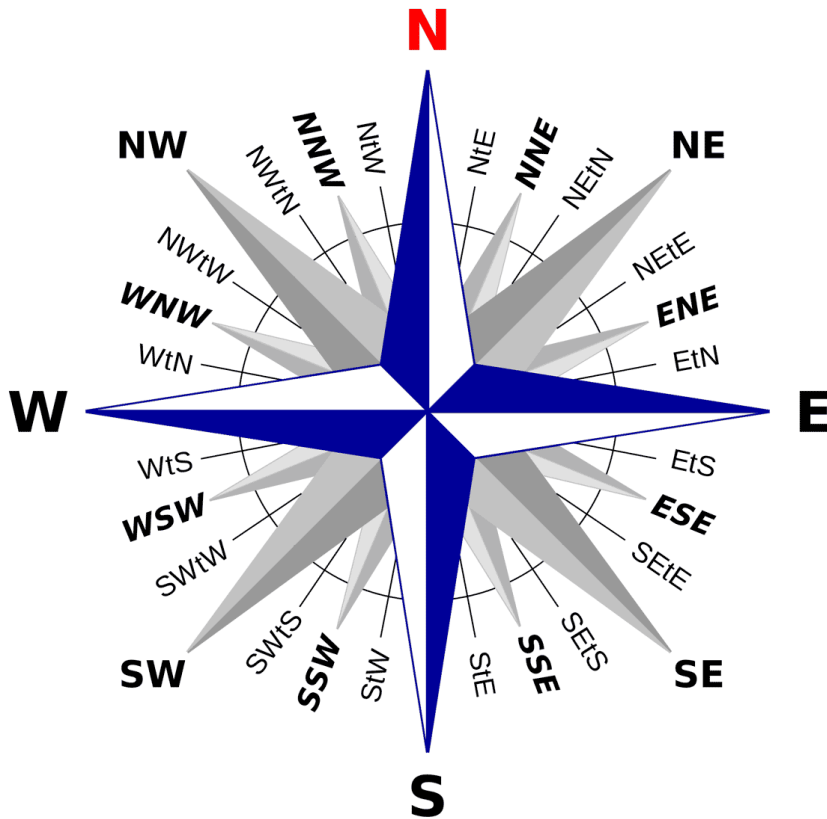


The coordinates for Changchun, Jilin, China are Latitude 43° and 54' N(orth) and Longitude 125° and 12' E(ast), meaning 43° 54' North of the equator and 125°12' East of Greenwich, England. When we know that one degree has a *length* of 111,12km at the equator, we can guess that the *distance* London-Changchun may be about 10,000km.

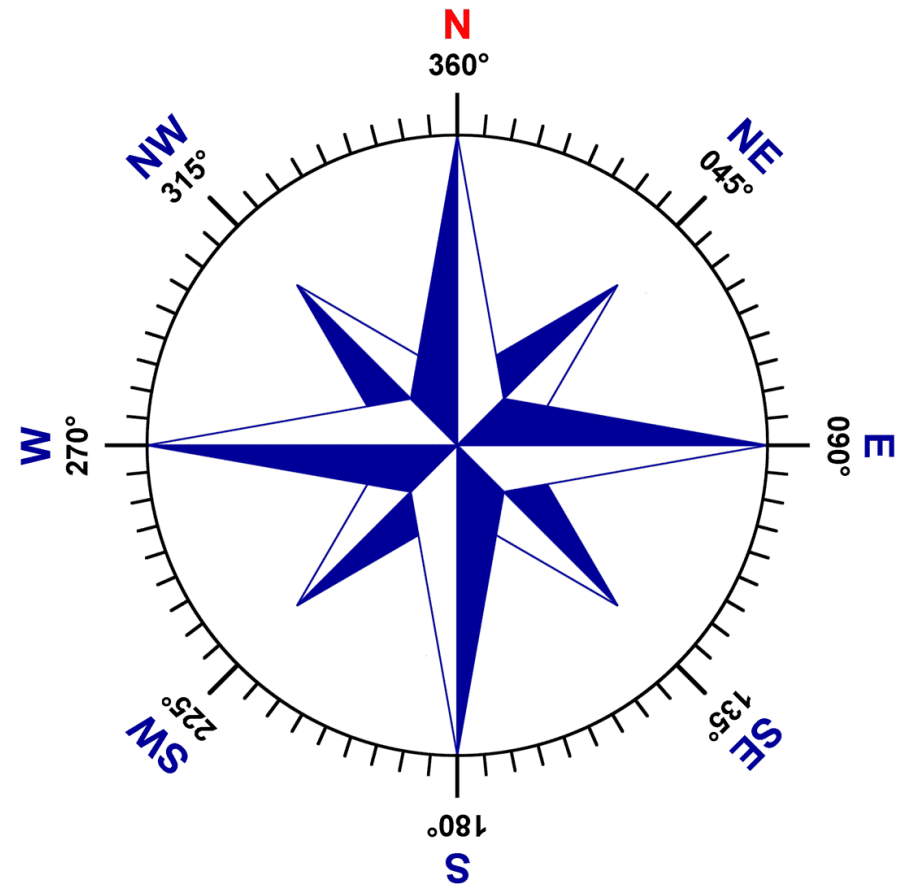
The Compass (Image: Windrose And Compass Rose)

The [magnetic compass](#) was first invented as a device for [divination](#) as early as the Chinese Han Dynasty (since about 206 BC).

The use of a compass is recorded in Western Europe between 1187 and 1202, and in Persia in 1232. The dry compass was invented in Europe around 1300. This was supplanted in the early 20th century by the [liquid-filled](#) magnetic compass.



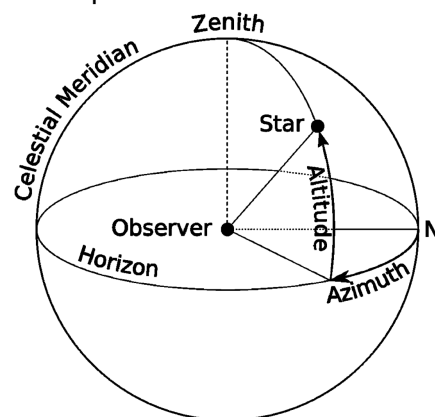
The compass was used in Song Dynasty China by the military for navigational orienteering by 1040-1044, and was used for maritime navigation by 1111 to 1117.



A compass is a [navigational instrument](#) that shows directions in a frame of reference that is [stationary](#) relative to the surface of the Earth.

The frame of reference defines the four cardinal directions (or points) – north, south, east, and west. *Intermediate directions* are also defined. Usually, a diagram called a *compass rose*, which shows the directions (with their names usually abbreviated to initials), is marked on the compass. When the compass is in use, the rose is aligned with the real directions in the frame of reference, so, for example, the “N” mark on the rose really points to the north. Frequently, in addition to the rose or sometimes instead of it, angle markings in degrees are shown on the compass. North corresponds to zero degrees, and the angles increase clockwise, so east is 90 degrees, south is 180, and west is 270. These numbers allow the compass to show azimuths or bearings, which are commonly stated in this notation.

The azimuth is the angle formed between a reference direction (North) and a line from the observer to a point of interest projected on the same plane as the reference direction. The vector from an observer



(origin) to a point of interest is projected perpendicularly onto a reference plane; the angle between the projected vector and a reference vector on the reference plane is called the azimuth. An example is the position of a star in the sky. The star is the point of interest, the reference plane is the horizon or the surface of the sea, and the reference vector points north. The azimuth is the angle between the north vector and the perpendicular

projection of the star down onto the horizon. The azimuth is usually measured in degrees. The concept is used in navigation, astronomy, engineering, mapping, mining and artillery. True north-based azimuths:

From North			
North	0° or 360°	South	180°
North-Northeast	22.5°	South-Southwest	202.5°
Northeast	45°	Southwest	225°
East-Northeast	67.5°	West-Southwest	247.5°
East	90°	West	270°
East-Southeast	112.5°	West-Northwest	292.5°
Southeast	135°	Northwest	315°
South-Southeast	157.5°	North-Northwest	337.5°

Polar Alignment

Now the students' question might be “what is the practical use of all this knowledge of the compass?” Well, you always will find the way or position when you can use compass and map together correctly. Making a polar alignment is the most promising method. Every map is orientated the same: its top is the North, its bottom is the South. In most maps you can see latitude and longitude lines which follow this North-south pattern. Therefore you will be able to compare the map with the real terrain. Comparing the map with the real terrain is called Polar alignment. There are two main methods of polar alignments:

Coarse polar alignment without a compass: The quickest and easiest method for a coarse or rough polar alignment of a map is the direct comparison with the surrounding terrain. You need to know your

position in the map with some accuracy. The card is then rotated until the bearing direction matches the location to remote objects on the map such as buildings, crossroads, mountain peaks etc. Of course this is only possible with sufficient vision to those objects.

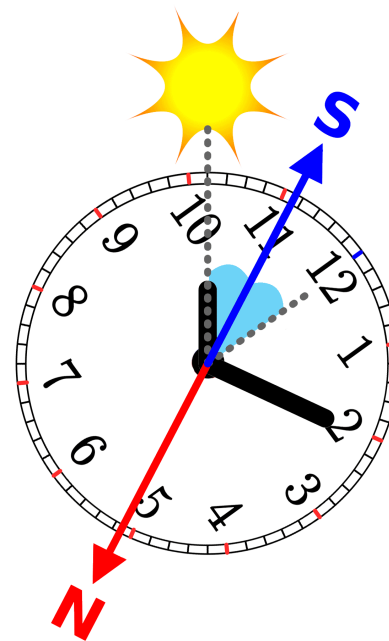


Coarse polar alignment with compass: This compass methods ignore the difference between true north, grid north and magnetic north, but it is precise enough to let you find the right way. Rough polar alignment a map at the edge When polar alignment using a compass no distance vision is required and the own location need not be known. You turn the card until the lateral map sheet edge, the lateral map frame or extending in a north-south direction grid lines (if any) are parallel to the magnetic needle of the compass, the north end of the compass needle points to the north side of the map.

Alternatively, also the most runs on the map in east-west direction location names can be used, which must be perpendicular to the magnetic needle after the polar alignment.

Using An Analogue Watch And The Sun As A Compass

An *analogue* watch can be used to locate north and south. (If you have only a watch with digital display, you can draw an analog model

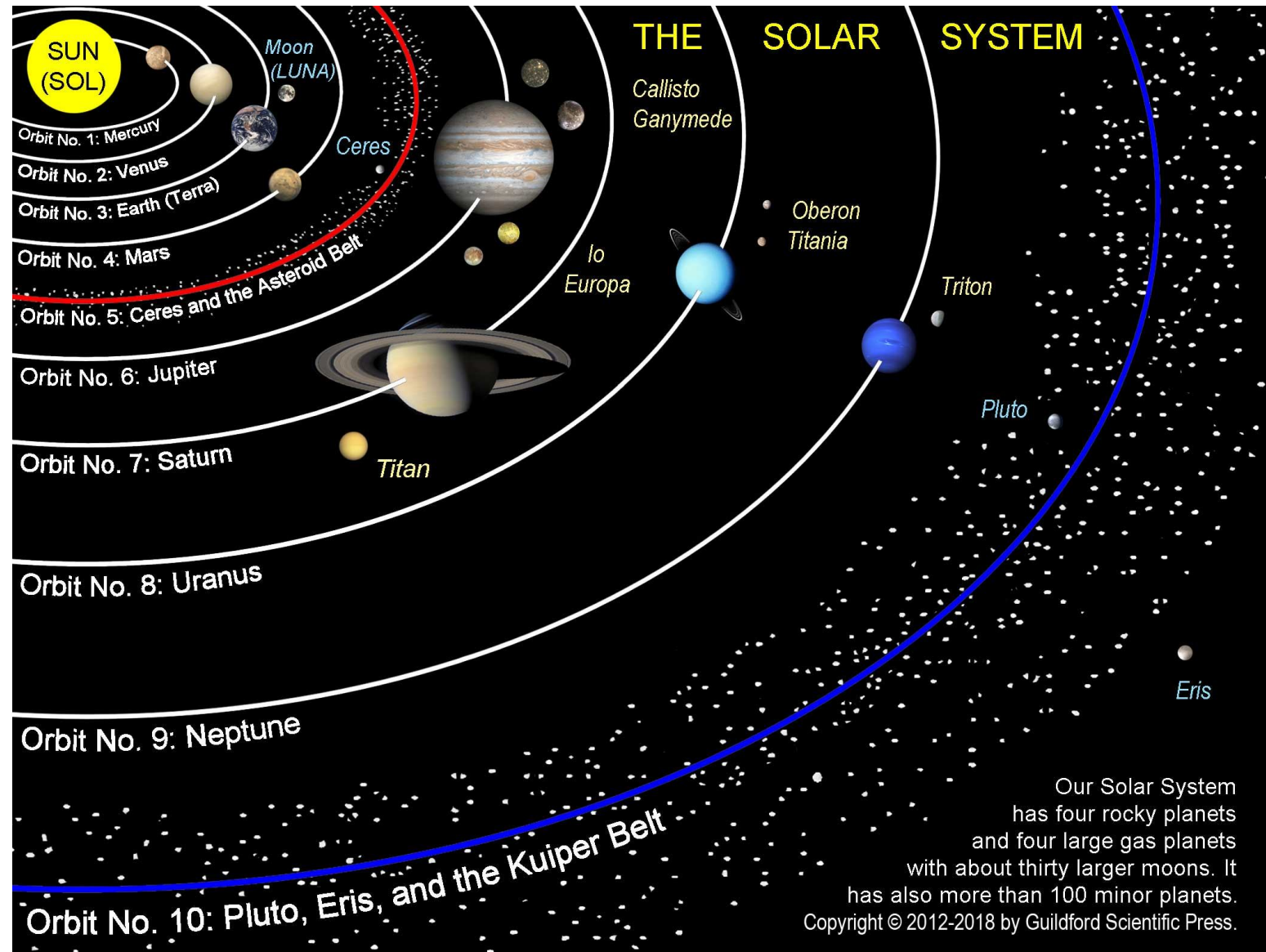


of the current time on a piece of paper or even your skin.): The Sun appears to move in the sky over a 24 hour period while the hour hand of a 12-hour clock face takes twelve hours to complete one rotation. In the northern hemisphere, if the watch is rotated so that the hour hand points toward the Sun, the point halfway between the hour hand and 12 o'clock will indicate south. For this method to work in the southern hemisphere, the 12 is pointed toward the Sun and the point halfway between the hour hand and 12 o'clock will indicate north. During daylight saving time,

the same method can be employed using 1 o'clock instead of 12. If you have a map of the area which you are in, you can even perform an approximate polar alignment as described above

The Solar System - Our Home

Gaining knowledge about geography and time is only the beginning of discovering our world. Learning about Astronomy, the stars, and the planets in particular is one of the most fascinating experiences a student can enjoy at school. When I was a student, I was simply amazed by all those phantastic new discoveries, the beautiful pictures, the exciting space programmes. As a teacher, you have the chance to awaken the students' desire to work for China's ambitious space programmes or work for the NASA or ESA one day.



The students might understand that we are not only citizens of China or any other country, but that the entire Solar System is our home. Let's discover it!

And this is where we can begin: Draw the Sun in the upper corner of the blackboard and the 10 main orbits around it, just like in my sketch, asking the students if they know any English names of the planets. Here you can explain that most names are Roman. Only the "Sun", the "Earth" and the "Moon" are English names. However, English speakers also know their Roman names "Sol", "Terra" and "Luna" as these names are used in many English words as territory, terrain, lunatic, lunacy, lunny, lunar calendar, solar plexus, solar year.

Neither the size nor the orbit distances in my illustration are precisely to scale. My sketch only should give you an idea what our Solar System contains. If you want to give your students an impression about the size and distance scale of the Solar System, you can invite them to the following experiment. First try to collect objects whose size correspond to the original size of the Sun and her planets: an orange (14cm), Mercury (a 0.5mm sandcorn), Venus and Earth (a 1.2mm sandcorn each), Mars (a 0.7mm sandcorn), Ceres (a tiny 0.1mm sandcorn), Jupiter (a 1.4cm hazelnut), Saturn (a 1.2cm hazelnut), Uranus and Neptune (a 0.5cm pea or peppercorn each), Pluto and Eris (a tiny 0.2mm sandcorn each). Do not forget to bring the longest measuring band you can get.

Choose the longest corridor of the school to place the orange at the one end of that corridor, then place the Mercury sandcorn (on a white

sheet of paper, so that it can be seen) at a distance corresponding to the real Mercury orbit which would be here 58cm, the Venus at 108cm, the Earth at 150cm, Mars at 228cm, Ceres at 413cm, Jupiter at 7,78m, Saturn at 14,26m, Uranus at 28,70m Is your chosen corridor long enough to place Neptune, Pluto and Eris? How many metres long should it be?

If you have the space (!), for example a large sports ground, you can encrease the scale of your models ten times: The Sun (1.40m), Mercury (5mm), Venus and Earth (1.2cm each), and so on. How far away may Neptune, Pluto and Eris be by now?

You can extent the experiment and try to find out what is the distance of the nearest star systems. How many years has light to travel to reach those destinations? How large is our galaxy? Our experiment let the students not only "understand" the theory in numbers and facts, but they will "grasp" what space and distance really mean!

Search online for videos in English about our planets. Animate your students to vist the websites of NASA (<http://www.nasa.gov/>), NASA's Jet Propulsion Laboratory (<http://www.jpl.nasa.gov/>), the ESA (<http://www.esa.int/ESA>), DLR The German Aerospace Centre (<http://www.dlr.de/>) and the website of the China National Space Administration (国家航天局) (<http://www.cnsa.gov.cn/>) (website in English and Chinese!)

However, the following material gives you some data to talk about first.

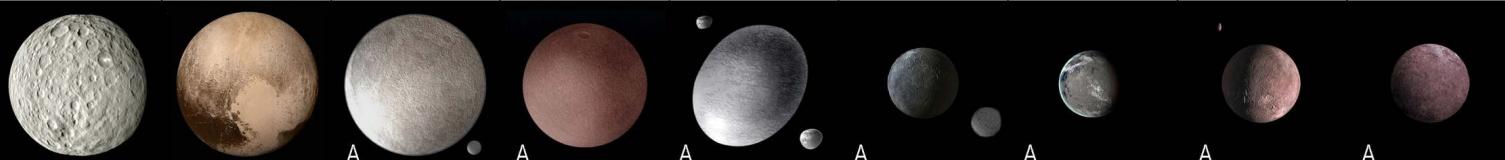
THE MAJOR PLANETS OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM

The Solar System has one star, the **Sun** (Latin: *Sol*), and eight major **planets**. There are 10 major **orbits** round the Sun: In orbit 1-4 there are the **Terrestrial** planets (类地行星), in the 5th orbit there is the **Asteroid Belt** with **dwarf planets** such as Ceres, in orbit 6-9 there are the **gas giants** (气体巨行星), in the 10th orbit there is the **Kuiper Belt** with dwarf planets such as Pluto and Eris. Some facts about the Sun: G-type star; **diameter**: 1,392,000 km; **rotation period**: 25.38 days; **escape velocity**: 617.7 km/s; mean **surface temperature**: 5,778 K, **photospheric composition**: H, He, O, C, Fe, S. The Sun contains almost 99.9 percent of all the **mass** in the Solar System. Its **mean distance** from the **Galactic Centre** is 26,000 **light years**, its **orbital period** about the Galactic Centre is 240 million years. The Solar System contains about 50 objects that could be defined as planetary bodies with a diametrical size from about 400 km to 143,000 km.

Terrestrial planet (类地行星) °		Mercury°	Venus°	Earth°	Mars°	Jupiter*	Saturn*	Uranus*	Neptune*
Gas giants (气体巨行星) *		水星	金星	地球	火星	木星	土星	天王星	海王星
Colour Code refering to the satellites of:									
Earth	Jupiter	Saturn							
Uranus	Neptune	Pluto							
Astronomical symbol 天文符号		♿	♀	⊕	♂	♃	♄	♅	♆
Mean distance from Sun	km	57,909,175	108,208,930	149,597,890	227,936,640	778,412,010	1,426,725,400	2,870,972,200	4,498,252,900
与太阳的平均距离	AU	0.38709893	0.72333199	1.00000011	1.52366231	5.20336301	9.53707032	19.19126393	30.06896348
Equatorial diameter 平均直径	km	4,879	12,103	12,756	6,794	142,985	125,340	51,110	49,489
Surface area	km	75,000,000	460,000,000	510,000,000	140,000,000	64,000,000,000	44,000,000,000	8,100,000,000	7,700,000,000
表面积	:E	0.1471	0.9010	1	0.2745	125.5	86.27	15.88	15.10
Volume	km³	6.083×10 ¹⁰	9.28×10 ¹¹	1.083×10 ¹²	1.6318×10 ¹¹	1.431×10 ¹⁵	8.27×10 ¹⁴	6.834×10 ¹³	6.254×10 ¹³
体积	:E	0.056	0.87	1	0.151	1,321.3	763.59	63.086	57.74
Mass	kg	3.302×10 ²³	4.8690×10 ²⁴	5.9742×10 ²⁴	6.4191×10 ²³	1.8987×10 ²⁷	5.6851×10 ²⁶	8.6849×10 ²⁵	1.0244×10 ²⁶
质量	:E	0.055	0.815	1	0.107	318	95	14	17
Density 密度	g/cm³	5.43	5.24	5.515	3.940	1.33	0.70	1.30	1.76
Equatorial gravity 赤道引力	m/s²	3.70	8.87	9.81	3.71	23.12	10.44	8.69	11.00
Escape velocity 宇宙速度	km/s	4.25	10.36	11.18	5.02	59.54	35.49	21.29	23.71
Rotation period in days 自转周期 / 天数		58.646225	-243.0187	0.99726968	1.02595675	0.41354	0.44401	-0.71833	0.67125
Orbital period in years 公转周期 / 年		0.2408467	0.61519726	1.0000174	1.8808476	11.862615	29.447498	84.016846	164.79132
Mean orbital speed 平均轨道速度	km/s	47.8725 km/s	35.0214 km/s	29.7859 km/s	24.1309 km/s	13.0697 km/s	9.6724 km/s	6.8352 km/s	5.4778 km/s
Eccentricity 离心率		0.20563069	0.00677323	0.01671022	0.09341233	0.04839266	0.05415060	0.04716771	0.00858587
Inclination in degrees 轨道倾角 / 度		7.00	3.39	0	1.85	1.31	2.48	0.76	1.77
Axial tilt in degrees 转轴倾角 / 度		0.0	177.3	23.44	25.19	3.12	26.73	97.86	29.58
Mean surface temperature 表面平均温度		440-100 K	730 K	287 K	227 K	152 K	134 K	72 K	76 K
Mean air temperature 空气平均温度				288 K		165 K	135 K	73 K	76 K
Atmospheric composition 大气成分		He Na ⁺ P ⁺	CO ₂ N ₂	N ₂ O ₂	CO ₂ N ₂ Ar	H ₂ He	H ₂ He	H ₂ He CH ₄	H ₂ He CH ₄
Number of known moons 已知卫星数量		0	0	1	2	67	62	27	14
Rings? 是否有行星环		No 否	No 否	No 否	No 否	Yes 是	Yes 是	Yes 是	Yes 是
Planetary discriminant 行星判别		9.1×10 ⁴	1.35×10 ⁶	1.7×10 ⁶	1.8×10 ⁵	6.25×10 ⁵	1.9×10 ⁵	2.9×10 ⁴	2.4×10 ⁴


THE DWARF PLANETS OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM

In 1766, the [astronomer](#) Johann Daniel Titius noted a certain [pattern](#) in the layout of the planets: *If one began a numerical sequence at 0, then included 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, etc., doubling each time, and added 4 to each number and divided by 10, this produced a remarkably close approximation to the radii of the orbits of the known planets as measured in "astronomical units".* This pattern launched a run to discover new planets. In 1781, William Herschel found Uranus, in 1801, Giuseppe Piazzi found the first object of the [Asteroid Belt](#): Ceres, in 1802 Heinrich Wilhelm Olbers found Pallas, its diameter is 544 kilometres and it is the second [asteroid](#) to have been discovered in the Asteroid Belt. in 1807, Herschel found another one: Vesta which has a mean diameter of 525 kilometres. Neptune was found by Johann Galle in 1846. Finally, in 1930, Clyde W. Tombaugh found the first object of the [Kuiper Belt](#): Pluto. Today know of about one hundred minor planets with a diameter of at least 500 km each. The [unmanned spacecraft](#) Dawn arrived Vesta in 2012 and sent excellent photos. It is [scheduled](#) to arrive at Ceres in early 2015. The NASA probe Horizon will arrive Pluto and Charon in mid-2015. Some of these dwarf planets I have listed below:

A = This image is only an artistic expression based on current scientific knowledge.		Ceres 谷神星	Pluto 冥王星	Eris 阋神星	Makemake 鸟神星	Haumea 妊神星	Orcus 亡神星	Salacia 萨拉喀亚	Quaoar 创神星	Sedna 赛德娜
Colour Code refering to the satellites of:										
Astronomical symbol 天文符号		♁	♇	♁	♁	♁	♁	♁	♁	♁
Mean distance from Sun 与太阳的平均距离	km AU	413,700,000 2.766	5,906,380,000 39.482	10,210,000,000 67.668	6,850,000,000 45.792	6,484,000,000 38.335	5,850,000,000 39	6,296,000,000 41.97	6,600,000,000 44	77,850,000,000 519
Equatorial diameter 平均直径	km	942	2,368	2,326	1,444	1,920×1,540	983	921	1,082	1,041
Volume 体积	km ³ :E	2,800,000 0.0055	17,000,000 0.0333	17,000,000 0.0333	6,400,000 0.013	6,800,000 0.0133	2,811,462 0.0055	?	2,237,870 0.00439	3,000,000 0.006
Surface area 表面积	km ² :E	4.37×10 ⁸ 0.0005	6.33×10 ⁹ 0.007	7.23×10 ⁹ 0.008	1.5×10 ⁹ 0.001	1.5×10 ⁹ 0.001	443,273,768 0.0004	?	314,793,649 0.0002	500,000,000 0.0005
Mass 质量	kg :E	9.5×10 ²⁰ 0.00016	1.3×10 ²² 0.0022	1.7×10 ²² 0.0028	>2.1×10 ²¹ >0.0003	4.01 ± .04×10 ²¹ 0.0007	6.32×10 ²⁰ 0.0001	4.5×10 ²⁰ 0.000075	(1.3–1.9)×10 ²¹ 0.0004	1×10 ²¹ 0.00016
Density 密度	g/cm ³	2.08	2.0	2.25	>1.4	2.6	1.5±0.3	1.16	>2.8	2.0
Equatorial gravity 赤道引力	m/s ²	0.27	0.60	~0.8	>0.28	0.63	0.27	0.11	0.24	<0.5
Escape velocity 宇宙速度	km/s	0.51	1.23	1.37	>0.6	0.91	0.50	0.43	0.45	<1.0
Rotation period in days 自转周期 /天数		0.3781	-6.38718	?	?	0.167	?	0.25	?	0.42
Orbital period in years 公转周期 / 年		4.599	247.92065	557	309.9	285.4	247.492	274.03	287.97	11,400
Mean orbital speed 平均轨道速度	km/s	17.882	4.7490	3.436	4.4	4.484	4.68	?	4.52	1.04
Eccentricity 离心率		0.080	0.24880766	0.44177	0.159	0.18874	0.22552	0.10312	0.038	0.855
Inclination in degrees 轨道倾角 / 度		10.587	17.14175	44.187	28.96	28.19	22.5	23.9396	8	11.93
Axial tilt in degrees 转轴倾角 / 度		4	119.61	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
Mean surface temperature 表面平均温度		167	40	30	30	<50	~42	?	~41	~12
Atmospheric composition 大气成分		H ₂ O, O ₂	N ₂ , CH ₄	N ₂ , CH ₄	N ₂ , CH ₄	?	?	?	?	?
Number of known moons 已知卫星数量		0	5	1	0	2	1	1	1	0
Planetary discriminant 行星判别		0.33	0.077	0.10	0.02	0.023	0.003	<0.1	0.0015	?



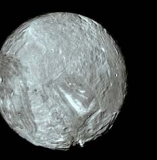




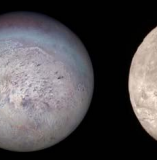

THE LARGE MOONS OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM

Towards the end of the 16th *century*, Galileo Galilei, an Italian *astronomer* and *inventor*, who played a major role in the *scientific* revolution was about to find out how the universe was built. He *improved* the *telescope*, a new Dutch invention. In 1610, he discovered that the planet Jupiter had four moons: Io, Europa, Ganymede, and Callisto. This was the first time that a scientist was *deliberately* looking for *satellites* of other planets. Today we know that Jupiter has 67, Saturn 62, Uranus 27, and Neptune 14 moons at least. Up to now, we have a rather good knowledge about 19 larger moons in the Solar System.

	Moon [Luna] 月球	Io 木卫一	Europa 木卫二	Ganymede 木卫三	Callisto 木卫四	Mimas 土卫一	Enceladus 土卫二	Tethys 土卫三	Dione 土卫四	Rhea 土卫五
Colour Code refering to the satellites of:										
Astronomical symbol 天文符号	☾									
Satellite belonging to Planet:	Earth	Jupiter	Jupiter	Jupiter	Jupiter	Saturn	Saturn	Saturn	Saturn	Saturn
Mean distance from planet 距围绕行星的平均距离:	km 384,399	421,600	670,900	1,070,400	1,882,700	185,520	237,948	294,619	377,396	527,108
Diameter 平均直径	km 3,474	3,630	3,138	5,328	4,821	397	504	1,066	1,123	1,529
Surface area 表面积	km ² 37,930,000 :E 0.074	41,910,000 0.082	30,900,000 0.061	87,000,000 0.171	73,000,000 0.143	490,000 0.001	799,000 0.0016	3,570,000 0.007	3,965,000 0.0078	7,337,000 0.0144
Volume 体积	km ³ 2.2×10 ¹⁰ :E 0.02	2.53×10 ¹⁰ 0.02	1.59×10 ¹⁰ 0.07	7.6×10 ¹⁰ 0.15	5.9×10 ¹⁰ 0.05	3.3×10 ⁷ 0.00003	6.7×10 ⁷ 0.00006	6.3×10 ⁸ 0.0006	7.4×10 ⁸ 0.0007	1.9 ×10 ⁹ 0.0017
Mass 质量	kg 7.3477×10 ²² :E 0.0123	8.94×10 ²² 0.015	4.80×10 ²² 0.008	1.4819×10 ²³ 0.025	1.0758×10 ²³ 0.018	3.75×10 ¹⁹ 0.000006	1.08×10 ²⁰ 0.000018	6.174×10 ²⁰ 0.00132	1.095×10 ²¹ 0.0003	2.306×10 ²¹ 0.0004
Density 密度	g/cm ³ 3.3464	3.528	3.01	1.936	1.83	1.15	1.61	0.98	1.48	1.23
Equatorial gravity 赤道引力	m/s ² 1.622	1.796	1.314	1.428	1.235	0.0636	0.111	0.145	0.231	0.264
Escape velocity 宇宙速度	km/s 2.38	2.56	2.025	2.741	2.440	0.159	0.239	0.393	0.510	0.635
Rotation period / days 自转周期 / 天数	27.321582 (sync 同步)	1.7691378 (sync 同步)	3.551181 (sync 同步)	7.154553 (sync 同步)	16.68902 (sync 同步)	0.942422 (sync 同步)	1.370218 (sync 同步)	1.887802 (sync 同步)	2.736915 (sync 同步)	4.518212 (sync 同步)
Orbital period about the planet /days 围绕行星的公转周期 /天数	27.32158	1.769138	3.551181	7.154553	16.68902	0.942422	1.370218	1.887802	2.736915	4.518212
Mean orbital speed 平均轨道速度	1.022 km/s	17.34 km/s	13.740 km/s	10.880 km/s	8.204 km/s	14.32 km/s	12.63 km/s	11.35 km/s	10.03 km/s	8.48 km/s
Eccentricity 离心率	0.0549	0.0041	0.009	0.0013	0.0074	0.0202	0.0047	0.02	0.002	0.001
Inclination to planet's equator / degree 围绕行星的赤道轨道倾角 / 度	18.29–28.58	0.04	0.47	1.85	0.2	1.51	0.02	1.51	0.019	0.345
Axial tilt 转轴倾角	6.68	0	0	0–0.33	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean surface temperature 表面平均温度	220 K	130 K	102 K	110K	134 K	64 K	75 K	64 K	87 K	76 K
Atmospheric composition 大气成分	H He Na ⁺ K ⁺ Ar	SO ₂	O ₂	O ₂	O ₂ CO ₂		H ₂ O, N ₂ , CO ₂ , CH ₄			

THE LARGE MOONS OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM

The latest findings of [NASA's](#) and [ESA's space probes](#) revealed breathtaking facts. Mars has large amounts of water stored at its [polar caps](#) and [oxygen](#) is bound in rocks. Three moons are as large or even larger than the planet Mercury: the Jupiter moons Ganymede and Callisto as well as the Saturn moon Titan. The Jupiter moon Io is [geologically](#) more active than the Earth. NASA's space probe Voyager [photographed](#) an active [volcano eruption](#). Europa's surface seem to be covered with water which itself is coated with a thick [shield](#) of ice. Even our moon seem to have [water reservoirs](#) hidden in its [polar areas](#). The Titan moon has a thick [atmosphere](#), under it the space probe Huygens discovered weather, river valleys, [liquid hydrocarbon oceans](#), and mountain [peaks](#) covered with ice of it. When NASA's space probe Voyager arrived at Neptune it discovered that even this far away [planetary object](#) is geologically active: Voyager found active [nitrogen volcanoes](#) on Triton's surface. Pluto has five moons. One of them, Charon, is half the size of Pluto itself, which makes Pluto and Charon a so-called "[double planet](#)".

A = This image is only an artistic expression based on current scientific knowledge.		Titan 土卫六	Iapetus 土卫八	Miranda 天卫五	Ariel 天卫一	Umbriel 天卫二	Titania 天卫三	Oberon 天卫四	Triton 海卫一	Charon 冥卫一
Colour Code referring to the satellites of:										
Satellite belonging to Planet:		Saturn	Saturn	Uranus	Uranus	Uranus	Uranus	Uranus	Neptune	Pluto
Mean distance from planet 距围绕行星的平均距离:	km	1,221,870	3,560,820	129,390	190,900	266,000	436,300	583,519	354,759	17,536
Diameter 平均直径	km	5,152	1,471	472	1,158	1,169	1,578	1,523	2,707	1,207
Surface area 表面积	km ²	83,000,000	6,700,000	700,000	4,211,300	4,296,000	7,820,000	7,285,000	23,018,000	4,580,000
	:E	0.163	0.013	0.0014	0.008	0.008	0.015	0.014	0.045	0.009
Volume 体积	km ³	7.16×10 ¹⁰	1.67×10 ⁹	5.5×10 ⁷	8.1×10 ⁸	8.4×10 ⁸	2.06×10 ⁹	1.85×10 ⁹	1×10 ¹⁰	9.2×10 ⁸
	:E	0.066	0.0015	0.00005	0.0008	0.0008	0.0019	0.0017	0.00958	0.00085
Mass 质量	kg	1.3452×10 ²³	1.8053×10 ²¹	6.59×10 ¹⁹	1.35×10 ²¹	1.2×10 ²¹	3.5×10 ²¹	3.014×10 ²¹	2.14×10 ²²	1.52×10 ²¹
	:E	0.023	0.0003	0.00001	0.00022	0.0002	0.0006	0.00046	0.00358	0.00025
Density 密度	g/cm ³	1.88	1.08	1.20	1.67	1.40	1.72	1.63	2.061	1.65
Equatorial gravity 赤道引力	m/s ²	1.35	0.22	0.08	0.27	0.23	0.39	0.35	0.78	0.28
Escape velocity 宇宙速度	km/s	2.64	0.57	0.19	0.56	0.52	0.77	0.73	1.46	0.58
Rotation period / days 自转周期 / 天数		15.945 (sync 同步)	79.322 (sync 同步)	1.414 (sync 同步)	2.52 (sync 同步)	4.144 (sync 同步)	8.706 (sync 同步)	13.46 (sync 同步)	5.877 (sync 同步)	6.387 (sync 同步)
Orbital period about the planet / days 围绕行星的公转周期 / 天数		15.945	79.322	1.4135	2.520	4.144	8.706	13.46	-5.877	6.387
Mean orbital speed 平均轨道速度		5.57	3.265	6.657	5.50898	4.66797	3.644	3.152	4.39	0.2
Eccentricity 离心率		0.0288	0.0286	0.0013	0.0012	0.005	0.0011	0.0014	0.00002	0.0022
Inclination to planet's equator / degree 围绕行星的赤道轨道倾角 / 度		0.33	14.72	4.22	0.31	0.36	0.14	0.10	157	?
Axial tilt 转轴倾角		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	?
Mean surface temperature 表面平均温度		93.7	130	59	58	61	60	61	38	53
Atmospheric composition 大气成分		N ₂ , CH ₄							N ₂ , CH ₄	

ENGLISH LESSONS - BASIC CONVERSATION

This little collection of conversation lessons differs quite a lot from common lessons as we focus here only on the phrases which we really use and expressions that can help you to solve problems. As many of these phrases are fixed expressions, we do not need to bother about any grammar. Occasionally, I shall give you some valuable background information instead. Most lessons have the relevant vocabulary at the beginning or before the key-phrases. You can use them immediately

Important topics are Asking Questions, Greeting, Thanks, Apologising, Finding the Way, Emergency, Things you May See. You will find here the names of Public Places and Buildings, some basic vocabulary when you want to buy something, and Clothing Size Charts.

These little language lessons can be used by learners who want to learn some fundamental English expressions, but it also can be used by foreigners who want to learn some Basic Chinese as the phrases, questions and dialogues are made up in 3 columns: **English**, **Hanyu** (Mandarin Chinese written with Chinese characters) and in **Pinyin** (Mandarin Chinese written with Roman letters) for all learners who need a clue about the Chinese pronunciation.

I am not going to use contractions in my English courses, because it is advantageous to learn the full forms first, just as we did when we were children. Since we all speak with a different accent, people may understand us much better when we use the full forms and when we speak out each single word as clearly as possible. We shall begin with some general key phrases and questions that may help you to get about.

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Lesson 1 – Some First Basics

Hallo!	你好!	nǐ hǎo!
Good morning!	早上好!	zǎoshang hǎo!
Good afternoon	下午好!	xiàwǔ hǎo!
Good evening	晚上好!	wǎnshàng hǎo!
Good night	晚安!	wǎn'ān!
Good bye	再见!	zàijiàn!
Thank you	谢谢!	xièxiè!
Sorry!	对不起!	duìbùqǐ!!
I apologise!	我道歉!	wǒ dàoqiàn!

I have a question	我有一个问题!	wǒ yǒu yīgè wèntí!
Where is the toilet?	洗手间在哪里?	xǐshǒujiān zài nǎlǐ?
I am looking for the toilet!	我正在找厕所!	wǒ zhèng zài zhǎo cèsuǒ!
I am looking for my friend!	我正在找我的朋友!	wǒ zhèng zài zhǎo wǒde péngyǒu!
I need water!	我需要水!	wǒ xūyào shuǐ!
How are you?	你好吗?	nǐ hǎo ma?
How is she?	她怎么样?	tā zěnmeyàng?
I need help!	我需要帮助!	wǒ xūyào bāngzhù!
I need a doctor!	我需要医生!	wǒ xūyào yīshēng!
I want to go to the hospital!	我要去医院!	wǒ yào qù yīyuàn!

Do you understand me?	你能听懂我说的吗?	nǐ néng tīngdǒng wǒ shuō de ma?
Can you understand me?	你能理解我吗?	nǐ néng lǐjiě wǒ ma?
Can you help me?	你能帮助我吗?	nǐ néng bāngzhù wǒ ma?

Can you tell me?	你能告诉我吗?	nǐ néng gàosù wǒ ma?
Do you speak English?	你会说英语吗?	nǐ huì shuō yīngyǔ ma?
I did not understand!	我不明白!	wǒ bù míngbái!
Please, say it again!	请再说一遍!	qǐng zàishuō yíbiàn!
How to pronounce this?	这个怎么发音?	zhègè zěnmefāyīn?
What is the meaning of this?	这个是什么意思?	zhègè shì shénme yìsi?
What is this in English?	这个用英语怎么说?	zhègè yòng yīngyǔ zěnmeshuō?
Speak slowly!	慢慢说!	màn màn shuō!
Can you write it down for me?	你能为我写下来吗?	nǐ néng wèi wǒ xiě xiàlái ma?
I do not speak English!	我不会说英语!	wǒ bùhuì shuō yīngyǔ!
My English is not good!	我的英语不好!	wǒde yīngyǔ bù hǎo!

Lesson 2 – Asking Questions

Do you have ... ?	你有没有.....?	nǐ yǒu méiyǒu..... ?
No, we do not have ... !	不, (我们) 没有... !	(bù, wǒmen) méiyǒu... !
I should like to drink some water!	我想喝点儿水!	wǒ xiǎng hē diǎner shuǐ!
I should like some water!	我想喝一些水!	wǒ xiǎng hē yīxiē shuǐ!
I want to go!	我想去!	wǒ xiǎng qù!
I like to go!	我喜欢去!	wǒ xǐhuān qù!
Please give me some water!	请给我一些水!	qǐng gěi wǒ yīxiē shuǐ!
I should like to buy water!	我想去买水!	wǒ xiǎng qù mǎi shuǐ!
Where can I buy water?	我在哪里可以买水?	wǒ zài nǎlǐ kěyǐ mǎi shuǐ?

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

Who?	谁?	shuí?
Which?	哪个?	nǎge?
What?	什么?	shénme?
When?	什么时候?	shénme shíhòu?
Where?	在哪里?	zài nǎlǐ?
Where to?	在哪里?	zài nǎlǐ?
Where from?	哪里的?	nǎlǐ de?
Why?	为什么?	wèishéme?
How?	怎么样?	zěnmeyàng?
How much is it?	多少钱?	duōshǎo qián?
How many?	有多少?	yǒu duōshǎo?
Who is this?	这是谁?	zhè shì shuí?
Who has come?	谁已经到来?	shuí yǐjīng dàolái?
Who is there?	谁在那里?	shuí zài nǎlǐ?
Which street?	哪条街?	nǎ tiáo jiē?
Which one will you take?	你要带走哪一个?	nǐ yào dài zǒu nǎ yīge?
Which one can I take?	哪一个我可以带走?	nǎ yīge wǒ kěyǐ dài zǒu?
Which one is it?	它是哪一个?	tā shì nǎyī ge?
What is that?	那是什么?	nà shì shénme?
Do you like it?	你喜欢吗?	nǐ xǐhuān ma?
Do you want it?	你想要吗?	nǐ xiǎng yào ma?
How much is it?	多少钱?	duōshǎo qián?
How many are there?	有多少呢?	duōshǎo rén ne?
How many do you want?	你想要多少?	nǐ xiǎng yào duō shǎo?
How much do you want?	你想要多少?	nǐ xiǎng yào duō shǎo?
What does it look like?	它是什么样子的?	tā shì shénmē yàngzi de?
What time is it?	现在几点?	xiànzài shì shénme shíhòu?

What day is it?	星期几?	shì shénme rìzi?
What date is it?	几号?	jǐ hào?
What is that for?	那个是做什么用的呢?	nàgè shì zuò shénmē yòng de ní?
What has happened?	发生了什么事?	fāshēng le shénme shì?
When will we arrive?	我们什么时候才会到?	wǒmen shénme shíhòu cái huì dào?
When can I come?	我什么时候能来?	wǒ shénme shíhòu néng lái?
When will we meet?	我们什么时候才能满足?	wǒmen shénme shíhòu cáinéng mǎnzú?
When do you want to come?	你想什么时候来?	nǐ xiǎng shénme shíhòu lái?
Where is my money?	我的钱在哪里?	wǒde qián zài nǎlǐ?
Where is he?	他在哪里?	tā zài nǎlǐ?
Where will we go to?	我们要去哪里?	wǒmen yào qù nǎlǐ?
Where does she come from?	她从哪里来的?	tā cóng nǎlǐ lái de?
Where am I?	我在哪里?	wǒ zài nǎlǐ?
Where are we?	我们在哪里?	wǒmen zài nǎlǐ?
Where do you live?	你住在哪里?	nǐ zhù zài nǎlǐ?
Why do we go this way?	我们为什么要走这条路?	wǒmen wèishéme yào zǒu zhè tiáo lù?
Why is there no water?	为什么那儿没有水?	wèi shénme nà er méiyǒu shuǐ?
Do you have a car?	你有车吗?	nǐ yǒu chē ma?
Do you have children?	你有孩子吗?	nǐ yǒu hái zi ma?
Do you have water?	你有没有水?	nǐ yǒu méiyǒu shuǐ?

Lesson 3 – Greeting.

Greetings and introducing oneself are important parts of our speech. It makes the other people feel comfortable with you, particularly when you do it with a kind smile!

When I asked my students for instance “how are you doing” I often got the answer “I am doing my homework” or something like that. They were not aware that I was using another form of “how are you?”. And the stereotype Chinese-English answer “I’m fine, and you?” is rarely used among us. English is not a stereotype language. It is a language of great versatility! Look how many expressions we have, only to meet people, and what they mean:

Hallo! Hello!	你好	nǐ hǎo!
Good morning!	早上好!	zǎoshang hǎo!
Good day!	你好	nǐ hǎo!
Good afternoon!		xià wǔ hào !
Good evening!		wǎn shàng hào !
Good night!	晚安!	wǎn'ān!
Welcome!	欢迎!	huānyíng!
It is a pleasure!	那是一种享受!	nà shì yī zhǒng xiǎngshòu!
Please come in! Enter!	请进来!	qǐng jìnlái!
Take a seat!	取坐位!	qǔ zuòwèi!
(It is) nice to meet you! (It is a) pleasure to meet you! It is wonderful to make your acquaintance!	(它是) 很高兴认识你!	(tā shì) hěn gāoxìng rènshí nǐ!

This is Mr Miller!	这是米勒先生!	zhè shì mǐlěi xiānshēng!
That is Mrs Wayne!	那就是韦恩太太!	nà jiùshì wéiēn tàitai!
This is Miss Cameron!	这是卡梅伦小姐!	zhè shì kǎméilún xiǎojiě!
Good morning Sir!	早上好, 先生!	zǎoshang hǎo, xiānshēng!
Good afternoon Madam!	下午好女士!	xiàwǔ hǎo nǚshì!
Good evening Miss!	晚上好, 小姐!	wǎnshàng hǎo, xiǎojiě!
How are you?	你好吗?	nǐ hǎo ma ?
How are you doing?	你好吗?	nǐ hǎo ma ?
You are doing all right?	你正在做的好吗?	nǐ zhèngzài zuò de hǎo ma?
I am very well, thank you!	我很好, 谢谢!	wǒ hěn hǎo, xièxiè!
I am fine, and you?	我很好, 你呢?	wǒ hěn hǎo, nǐ ne?
I am all right!	我没事!	wǒ méishì!
I am ok!	我行!	wǒ xíng!
How about you?	你怎么样?	nǐ zěnmē yàng?
It is nice to see you again. Good to see you! It is a pleasure to have you here	很高兴再次见到你!	hěn gāoxìng zàicì jiàn dào nǐ !

Lesson 4 – Apologising And Thanks

Apologising and expressing thanks is very important in western countries as in the past our people had the pressure of being ruled by an overwhelming array of superiors such as landlords, estate owners, and other kind of authorities. To show a humble behaviour was a matter of survival in those times!

Today we do not face that kind of suppression anymore. Nonetheless, our children are taught good behaviour such as “perfect table manners” or “how to behave in public”. The habit of spitting as well as throwing rubbish onto the table, the floor, into the staircases, the yard, the garden, or the street is unforgivable! It could cost you the reputation of your new neighbours, and even a heavy fine if you get caught by the police while getting rid of your rubbish!

There are two different kinds of apologies. One kind of apology is meant only to alert people that you want to do something as for example passing them: “Excuse me please!”. The other kind of apology is meant for a situation in which you might have bothered others, for instance when you just have harmed them in any way or bumped into them already: “I am sorry!”. An expression such as “sorry” can be used for both occasions. Please do not use short forms here: Use *I am* instead of just *I’m*. Using the long, proper form shows that you really mean what you say!

Sorry!	对不起!	duìbùqǐ!
I am very sorry!	我很抱歉!	wǒ hěn bàoqiàn!
I am very sorry about that!	我很抱歉!	wǒ hěn bàoqiàn!
I (do) apologise!	我郑重道歉!	wǒ zhèngzhòng dàoqiàn!

Excuse me!	原谅我!	yuánliàng wǒ!
Excuse me please!	原谅我好吗!	yuánliàng wǒ hǎo ma!
Please, accept my sincere apologies!	请接受我诚挚的歉意!	qǐng jiēshòu wǒ chéngzhì de qiànyì!
I did not mean to do that!	我不是故意这样做!	wǒ bùshì gùyì zhèyàng zuò!
What a pity!	太可惜了!	tài kěxíle!

Thanks And Gratitude

For the above mentioned reasons we consider it important to apologise and thank all the time. This behaviour has nothing to do with friendliness, it is merely conducted on the “surface” in order to make ourselves agreeable to other people in our society! Chinese people are also friendly. But they are friendly in their own way: they are tolerant and peaceful, they are warm-hearted and often ready to turn a blind eye when you misbehave in their point of view. This is a great asset we Westerners really can learn from!

Thank you!	谢谢!	zièxiè!
Thanks a lot!	万分感谢!	wàn fēn gǎn xiè !
Thank you very much!	非常感谢你!	fēicháng gǎnxiè nǐ!
I am very grateful!	我非常感谢!	wǒ fēicháng gǎnxiè!
Many thanks for your help!	非常感谢您的帮助!	fēicháng gǎnxiè nín de bāngzhù!
Do not mention it!	不要提了!	bù yào tí le !
That is all right!	没事!	méi shì !
No problem!	没问题!	méi wèntí!
You are welcome!	别客气!	biè kè qì !

Lesson 5 – Finding The Way, By Taxi, Bus And On Foot

Getting on the right way is not easy sometimes. Here are expressions that help you to find your way: You can begin a polite question with:

A question please ...	请问...	qǐngwèn ...
Please may I disturb you?	请问我可以打扰一下你吗?	qǐngwèn wǒ kěyǐ dǎrǎo yī xià nǐ ma?
Please may I ask you a question?	请问我可以问你一个问题吗?	qǐngwèn wǒ kěyǐ wèn nǐ yīgè wèn tí ma?
Please could you show me the way to the toilets?	请问你能告诉我去厕所的路吗?	qǐngwèn nǐ néng gàosù wǒ qù cèsuǒ de lù ma?
Please show me the toilets!	请告诉我厕所在哪儿!	qǐng gàosù wǒ cèsuǒ zàinǎer!
Please can you show me the way to the exit?	请问你能告诉我出口在哪儿吗?	qǐngwèn nǐ néng gàosù wǒ chūkǒu zàinǎer ma?
Please can you give me some coins?	请问你能给我一些硬币吗?	qǐngwèn nǐ néng gěi wǒ yīxiē yìngbì ma?
Please may I pass?	请问我可以过吗?	qǐngwèn wǒ kěyǐ guò ma?

Phrases and words that help

Is / are there ... ? Have you got ... ? Do you have ... ?	有...吗? 有没有 ...?	yǒu ... ma? yǒu méi yǒu ... ?
No, there is / are none! No, we have not got any! No, we do not have any!	没有!	méi yǒu!

Yes, there is / are! We have!	是的, 有!	shìde, yǒu!
No, there is / are no ... !	不, 没有 ...!	bu, méi yǒu ... !
What does it cost?	多少钱?	duō shǎo qián ?
Can you give a receipt please?	你可以给收据吗?	nǐ kěyǐ gěi shōu jù ma ?

Some phrases which you can say or might hear in a taxi or on a bus:

Where is ... ?	...在哪里?	... zài nǎ lǐ ?
I am looking for ...	我找...	wǒ zhǎo ...
Please bring me to ... !	请开到...!	qǐng kāi dào ...!
Please, I want to go to ... !	请我要去...!	qǐng wǒ yào qù ...!
Can I go to ...?	我可以去...?	wǒ kě yǐ qù... ?
(I have) arrived!	(我)到了!	(wǒ) dào le!
(We have) arrived!	(我们)到了!	(wǒ men) dào le!

Words for directions or positions which you can say or you might hear:

straight ahead	一直	yī zhí
(on the) right-hand side	右面	yòu miàn
(on the) left-hand side	左面	zǒu miàn
go (or move) to the right	去右面	qù yòu miàn
go (or move) to the left	去左面	qù zǒu miàn
in the front of	前面	qián miàn
at the back of	后面	hòu miàn
inside	里面	lǐ miàn
outside	外面	wài miàn
on, up	上面	shàng miàn
under, down	下面	xià miàn
here	这里	zhè lǐ
come here	到这里	dào zhè lǐ
there	哪里	nǎ lǐ

go there	去那里	qù nǎ lǐ
near	近	jìn
far	远	yuǎn
crossroad	十字路口	shí zì lù kǒu
traffic lights	红绿灯	hóng lǜ dēng
north	北面	běi bù
northeast	东北面	dōng běi bù
east	东面	dōng bù
southeast	东南面	dōng nán bù
south	南面	nán bù
southwest	西南面	xī nán bù
west	西面	xī bù
northwest	西北面	xī běi bù

Lesson 6 - Emergencies

Nothing is so important as expressing emergencies. Please learn the following expressions. It can save lives. May be, even your own life!

This is an emergency!	这是一个紧急情况!	zhè shì yīgè jǐnjí qíngkuàng!
Call an ambulance!	叫救护车!	jiào jiùhù chē!
Call the police!	叫警察!	jiào jǐngchá!
We need help!	我们需要帮助!	wǒmen xūyào bāngzhù!
Help!	帮助!	bāngzhù!
It is urgent!	迫在眉睫!	pò zài méi jié!
Please hurry!	请赶紧!	qǐng gǎnjǐn!
Fire!	火!	huǒ!
There is a fire!	有火!	yǒu huǒ!

Get the fire brigade!	得到消防官兵!	dédào xiāofáng guānbīng!
Please can you call the doctor?	请你能叫医生?	qǐng nǐ néng jiào yīshēng?
Please call an ambulance!	请叫救护车!	qǐng jiào jiùhùchē!
Please fetch the police!	请叫警察!	qǐng jiào jǐngchá !
I have pain here!	我这儿痛!	wǒ zhèer tòng !
He has a heart attack!	他心脏发作!	tā xīn zàng fā zuò !
I do not feel well!	我觉得不舒服!	wǒ juéde bú shūfú!
My blood type is A!	我的血型是 A!	wǒ de xiěxíng shì A!
My passport has been stolen!	我的护照已经被盗!	wǒ de hùzhào yǐjīng bèi dào!
Please open the door!	请开门!	qǐng kāimén!
I need to get off!	我要下车!	wǒ yào xià chē!
I must get out!	我必须出去!	wǒ bìxū chūqù!
I need water!	我需要水!	wǒ xūyào shuǐ!
I need drinking water!	我需要饮用水!	wǒ xūyào yǐnyòng shuǐ!
I need pain killers!	我需要止疼药!	wǒ xū yào zhǐ téng yào!
I need Aspirin!	我需要阿司匹林!	wǒ xūyào āsīpīlín!
She cannot breathe!	她不能呼吸了!	tā bùnéng hūxīle!
He has a shock!	他休克了!	tā xiū kè le !
Look out!	当心!	dāng xīn!
Be careful!	小心!	xiǎo xīn !
There has been an accident!	那儿出现意外!	nàer chū xiàn yìwài !

I have cut myself!	我已经砍伤了自己!	wǒ yǐjīng kǎn shāng le zìjǐ !
I have burnt myself	我已经烧毁了自己!	wǒ yǐjīng shāohuǐ le zìjǐ !
I had a fall!	我摔倒了!	wǒ shuāi dǎo le!
Are you okay?	你还好吗?	nǐ hái hǎo ma?
I have been mugged!	我被抢劫了!	wǒ bèi qiǎng jié le !
I have been attacked!	我被攻击了!	wǒ yīzhī zài gōngjí!
I have been robbed!	我被抢了!	wǒ bèi qiāng le !
The building's on fire!	大楼着火了!	dàlóu zháohuǒle!
I am lost! / I have lost the way!	我迷路了! 我已经迷失了方向!	wǒ mí lù le! wǒ yǐjīng mí shī le fāng xiàng!
Where am I?	我在哪里?	wǒ zài nǎlǐ?

Lesson 7 – International Emergency Telephone Numbers

Unfortunately, there is no world-wide emergency telephone number yet. The emergency number differs from country to country; it is typically a *three-digit number* so that it can be easily remembered and dialed quickly. In many countries the public telephone network has only one single emergency telephone number for the **Ambulance**, the **Fire Brigade**, and the **Police** (also known as universal emergency telephone number or emergency services number) that allows a caller to contact local emergency services for help. Some countries have a different emergency number for each of the different emergency services; these often differ only by the last digit. In the European Union, Russia, Ukraine and Switzerland and others “112” was introduced as a common emergency call number during the 1990s.

Whilst travelling abroad it's handy to know the local emergency phone numbers. Most GSM mobile telephones will have pre-programmed emergency numbers already available to you, but for those that do not have this service or if you are using a land line, I have listed some international emergency phone numbers:

000	<i>Australia</i> , Papua New Guinea.
111	<i>New Zealand</i> .
112	<i>European Union, United Kingdom</i> , Greenland, Iceland, Israel (from mobile phones), Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, <i>India</i> (from mobile phones), <i>Pakistan</i> (from mobile phones) Philippines (landline 117), Russia, <i>South Africa</i> , South Korea (02112 from mobile phones), Tajikistan, Turkey (from mobile phones only), Ukraine, Vanuatu.
999 or 112	Antigua & Barbuda, Bahrain, <i>Bangladesh</i> , Channel Islands, <i>Grenada</i> , Hong Kong, <i>Isle of Man</i> , Macau, Malaysia, Myanmar / Burma, Oman, Qatar, <i>Republic of Ireland</i> , Solomon Islands, Sudan, Taiwan, <i>United Kingdom</i> .
911	Antigua & Barbuda, Argentina, Bahamas (and 919), Bermuda, <i>Canada</i> , Cayman Islands, Chile, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, <i>Grenada</i> , Paraguay, Philippines, <i>United States of America</i> , Uruguay.

Country	Police	Ambulance	Fire
<i>China</i>	110	120	119
<i>India</i>	100	108	101
<i>Brazil</i>	190	192	193
<i>Indonesia</i>	110	118	113
<i>Japan</i>	110	119	119
<i>Mexico</i>	066	065	068
<i>Thailand</i>	191	1554	199

Lesson 8 – Things You May See On Plaques And Signs

General Displays – You can find these warnings and guidances everywhere. Many of them have to be displayed by law on behalf of public safety. To know their meaning can save you from trouble!

Stop! Halt! Give Way!	停止! 让路!	tíngzhǐ! rànglù!
Danger! Perilous! Caution!	危险! 注意!	wéixiǎn! zhùyì!
Exit	出口	chūkǒu
Fire Extinguisher	灭火器	mièhuǒqì
emergency call emergency telephone	急诊 紧急电话	jízhěn jǐnjí diànhuà
High Tension! Danger for Life!	高度紧张! 危险的生命!	gāodù jǐnzhāng! wéixiǎn de shēngmìng!
Radiation!	辐射!	fúshè!
Push Pull	推 拉	tuī lā
Toilet, Lavatories, WC Gents, Gentlemen Ladies Occupied Free	厕所, 盥洗室 男 女 占领 有空认得	cèsuǒ, guànxǐ shì nán nǚ zhàn lǐng miǎnfèi
Out of Order!	乱来!	luàn lái!
No smoking! No fire! No litter! No swimming! No fouling!	禁止吸烟! 禁止明火! 禁止乱扔垃圾! 禁止游泳! 禁止污染!	jìnzhǐ xīyān! jìnzhǐ míng huǒ ! jìnzhǐ luànrēng lājī ! jìnzhǐ yóuyóuǎng ! jìnzhǐ wūrǎn!

Minimum Fine £500, Penalty £500	最低罚款 500 英镑	zuìdī fákuǎn 500 yīngbàng
look right!	向右看。	xiàngyòu kàn.
Building site, Roadworks	建筑工地! 道路工程	jiànzhù gōngdì ! dào lù gōng chéng
Mind the gap!	小心台阶间跨度!	xiǎoxīn táijiē jiàn kuàdù !
Mind your head! Caution! Wet Floor!	当心你的头! 小心! 地面湿滑!	dāngxīn nǐde tóu ! xiǎoxīn! dìmiàn shī huá!
Stand Right!	靠右侧站立!	kào yòu cè zhàn lì!
Do not lean out!	不要将身体伸出!	bù yào jiàng shēn tǐ shēn chū !
Handle with care!	小心轻放!	xiǎoxīn qīng fàng!
Keep dry!	保持干燥!	bǎochí gānzào!
Do not enter! No Admittance!	禁输入! 禁免进!	jìnzhǐ shūrù! jìnzhǐ miǎn jìn!
Private! Private Property!	私人! 私产	sīrén! sīchǎn
No Trespassing!	禁止擅入 !	jìnzhǐ shàn rù!
Staff Only! Members Only!	职工专用! 会员专用!	zhígōng zhuān yòng! huìyuán zhuān yòng!
Keep out! Out of Bounds Beware of Dogs!	阻止进入! 出界 小心狗!	zǔzhǐ jìnrù! chūjiè xiǎoxīn gǒu!
Do not block the drive!	不要阻止驱动器!	bùyào zǔzhǐ qūdòng g qì!

Lesson 9 - The Most Significant Public Buildings*Names and plaques at public institutions and buildings:*

Hospital	医院	yīyuàn
Police	警察	jǐngchá
Fire Brigade	消防大队	xiāofáng dàduì
Surgery	手术	shǒushù
Doctor on call	值班医生	zhíbān yīshēng
Information	信息	xìnxī
Cashier	出纳员	chūnà yuán
Office	办公室	bàngōngshì
Post Office	邮局	yóujú
Royal Mail	邮政局英	yóuzhèngjú yīngguó
Primary School	小学	xiǎo xué
Secondary School	中学	zhōng xué
Grammar School	文法学校	wén fǎ xué xiào
College	学院	xué yuàn
University	大学	dà xué
Lift, Elevator	电梯	diàntī
Escalator	自动楼梯	zìdòng lóutī
Headquarters	总部	zǒng bù
Church	教堂	jiàotáng
Cathedral	大教堂	dà jiàotáng
Mosque	清真寺	qīngzhēnsì
Synagogue	犹太教堂	yóutài jiàotáng
Temple	寺庙	sìmiào
City Hall, Townhall	市政厅	shìzhèng tīng
Embassy	大使馆	dàshǐguǎn
Consulate	领事馆	lǐngshìguǎn
Ministry	部门	bù mén
Job Centre	就业中心	jiùyè zhōngxīn

Library	文库	wénkù
Pedestrian area	步行区	bùxíng qū
Stairs	楼梯	lóutī
Bridge	桥	qiáo

Stadium, stadion (football pitch)	体育场	tǐyùchǎng
Gymnasium, gym	健身房	jiànshēnfáng
Leisure centre	休闲中心	xiūxián zhōngxīn
Museum	博物馆	bówùguǎn
Park	公园	gōngyuán
Shopping Centre	购物中心	gòuwù zhòng xīn
Theatre	剧院	jùyuàn
Opera house	歌剧院	gē jùyuàn

Hotel, Inn	旅馆	lǚguǎn
Hostel	旅社	lǚshè
Youth hostel, YMCA	青年旅社	qīngnián lǚshè
Restaurant	饭店	fàn diàn
Canteen	食堂	shítáng
Cafe	咖啡馆	kāfēi guǎn
Club	俱乐部	jùlèbù
Bar, pub	酒吧	jiǔbā

Airport	大机场	dà jīchǎng
Aerodrome	机场	jīchǎng
Terminal B	B 候机楼	B hòu jī lóu
Bus stop	公共汽车站	gōnggòng qìchē zhàn,
Coach station	长途汽车站	chángtú qìchē zhàn
Railway Station	火车站	huǒchē zhàn

Underground, Metro, Subway (Station)	地铁站	dìtiě zhàn
northbound	路北	lù běi
southbound	路南	lù nán
westbound	路西	lù xī
eastbound	路东	lù dōng
Emergency brake	紧急制动	jǐnjí zhì dòng
Drinking water	饮用水	yǐnyòng shuǐ

Lesson 10 - Surname, First Name, Country, Nationality

Conversation: What's your family name? (您贵姓)

What's your name?	你叫什么名字?	nǐ jiào shénmē míngzì?
My name is James Miller.	我叫 James Miller	wǒ jiào james miller.
What's your family name?	你叫什么名字	nǐ jiào shénme míngzì?
My family name is Miller.	我姓张	wǒ xìng miller.
What is his family name?	他姓什么	tā xìng shénme?
His family name is King.	他姓 King	tā xìng king.

Conversation: Who is he? (他是谁)

Who is it (he)?	他是谁?	tā shì shéi?
He is my teacher.	他是我的老师。	tā shì wǒde lǎoshī.
Do you know him?	你认识他吗?	nǐ rènshi tā ma?
Yes, he is a student of the teacher Mr King.	认识,他是 King 老师的学生。	rènshi, tā shì king lǎoshī de xuésheng.

Conversation: What's your friend's name? (你的朋友叫什么名字?)

What is your friend's name?	你的朋友叫什么名字?	nǐde péngyou jiào shénme míngzì?
His family name is Doyle, his full name is Ray Doyle.	他姓 Doyle, 叫 Ray Doyle。	tā xìng doyle, jiào ray doyle.
Doyle is his family name,.	李是他的姓。	doyle shì tāde xìng.

Country, Nationality

China	中国	Zhōngguó
Japan	日本	Rìběn
Thailand	泰国	Tàiguó
Vietnam	越南	Yuènnán
Burma	缅甸	Miǎndiàn
Russia	俄罗斯	Ēluósī
India	印度	Yīndù
Pakistan	巴基斯坦	Bājisītǎn
Canada	加拿大	Jiānádà
Australia	澳大利亚	Àodàliǎ
New Zealand	新西兰	Xīnxīlán
the Philippines	菲律宾	Fēilǚbīn
the European Union	欧盟	Ōuméng
the Netherlands	荷兰	Hélán
Germany	德国	Déguó
Brazil	巴西	Bāxī
France	法国	Fàguó
Italy	意大利	Yìdàlì
Spain	西班牙	Xībānyá
Portugal	葡萄牙	Pútáoyá
the Republic of Ireland	爱尔兰共和国	Ài'ěrlán gònghéguó
the United States	美国	Měiguó

The United Kingdom is a Union of four nations:

the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK)	大不列颠和北爱尔兰联合王国	Dàbùlièdiān hé běi ài'ěrlán liánhé wángguó
England	英国	Yīngguó
Scotland	苏格兰	Sūgélán
Wales	威尔士	Wēi'ěrshì
Northern Ireland	北爱尔兰	Běi ài'ěrlán

Conversation: What country is this?

this	这	zhè	(pro)
that	那	nà	(pro)

What country is this?	这是哪个国家?	zhè shì nǎ gè guójiā?
This is the United Kingdom / Great Britain.	这是大不列颠。	zhè shì dàbùlièdiān.
Is that England?	那是英国吗?	nà shì yīngguó ma?
That is not England, that is Scotland.	那不是英国, 那是苏格兰。	nà bú shì yīngguó, nà shì sūgélán.

Conversation 1 : Which country are you going to? (您去哪个国家)

Sir, which country are you going to?	先生您去哪个国家	xiānsheng, nín qù nǎ gè guójiā?
I go to Scotland.	我去苏格兰	wǒ qù sūgélán.
Are you a Scotsman?	您是苏格兰人吗	nín shì sūgélánrén ma?
Yes, I am a Scotsman.	是的我是苏格兰人	shìde, wǒ shì sūgélán rén.

The Adjective Of A Country Name

When Chinese speakers want to refer to the people of a country, they just add the word 人 (rén) to the name of the country. In English we use the Adjective of that country, which looks different from the country's name. The English adjective, however, can refer to the people, the language or the culture without adding another word! You can, if you want to be very precise, add the words "man", "woman", "people", "language", "food", "culture", and so on. Some countries have no Adjective. Here you can say "the man (woman, people) from the Netherlands", "from New Zealand", although you also could say "New Zealander".

Chinese	中国(人)	zhōngguó(rén)
Japanese	日本(人)	rìběn(rén)
Thai	泰国(人)	tàiguó(rén)
Vietnamese	越南(人)	yuènnán(rén)
Burmese	缅甸(人)	miǎndiàn(rén)
Russian	俄罗斯(人)	èluósī(rén)
Indian	印度(人)	yìndù(rén)
Pakistani	巴基斯坦(人)	bājīsītǎn(rén)
Canadian	加拿大(人)	jiānádà(rén)
Australian	澳大利亚(人)	àodàliyǎ(rén)
(of, from) New Zealand	新西兰(人)	xīnxīlán(rén)
Philippino	菲律宾(人)	fēilǚbīn(rén)
European	欧盟(人)	ōuméng(rén)
Dutch	荷兰(人)	hélán(rén)
German	德国(人)	déguó(rén)
Brazilian	巴西(人)	bāxī(rén)
French	法国(人)	fàguó(rén)
Italian	意大利(人)	yìdàlì(rén)

Spanish / Spaniard*	西班牙(人*)	xībānyá(rén)
Portuguese	葡萄牙(人)	pútáoyá(rén)
southern Irish	爱尔兰共和国(人)	ai'ěrlán gònghéguó (rén)
US-American	美国(人)	měiguó(rén)

Conversation: Which country are you from? (你是哪国人)

Miss, which country are you from?	小姐你是哪国人?	xiǎojiě, nǐ shì nǎ guó rén?
I am American.	我是美国人.	wǒ shì Měiguórén.
Are they American too?	他们也是美国人吗?	tāmen yě shì měiguórén ma?
(No, they are not American,) they are all British.	(不他们不是美国人.) 他们都是英国人	(bù tāmen bú shì měiguórén). tāmen dōu shì yīngguórén

Conversation: Have you been to the UK? (你去过英国吗?)

Have you been to UK?	你去过英国吗	nǐ qù guo yīngguó ma?
I have not been to UK.	我没去过英国.	wǒ méi qù guo yīngguó.
Do you want to go to the UK?	你想去英国吗?	nǐ xiǎng qù yīngguó ma?
I really want to go to the UK.	我的确很想去英国.	wǒde què hěn xiǎng qù yīngguó.

Lesson 11 – City, Native Place

place, location	地方	dìfang	(n)
where	哪儿	nǎr	(pro)

of, from	的	de	(prep)
big	大	dà	(adj)
little, young	小, 年轻的	xiǎo, niánqīngde	(adj)
small	小	xiǎo	(adj)
many, a lot of	多	duō	(adj)
a little while	一会儿	yíhuìr	(adv)
please	请	qǐng	(adv)
once, a bit	一次, 一下	yīcì, yíxià	(adv)
but	可是, 但是	kěshì, dànshì	(conj)

Peking / Beijing	北京	Běijīng
Shanghai	上海	Shànghǎi
Nanjing / Nanking	南京	Nánjīng
Xian / Sian	西安	Xī'ān
Hongkong	香港	Xiānggǎng
Tokyo	东京	Dōngjīng
Bangkok	曼谷	Màngǔ
New Dehli	新德里	Xīndélǐ
Bombay / Mumbai	孟买/	Mèngmǎi
Moscow	莫斯科	Mòsikē
Rio de Janeiro	里约热内卢	Lǐyuērènnèilú
New York	纽约	Niǔyuē
Chicago	芝加哥	Zhījiāgē
San Francisco	旧金山	Jiùjīnshān
Toronto	多伦多	Duōlúnduō
Montreal	蒙特利尔	Méngtèlì'ěr
Paris	巴黎	Bālí
Madrid	马德里	Mǎdélǐ
Amsterdam	阿姆斯特丹	Āmùsītèdān
Berlin	柏林	Bólín
Cologne	科隆	Kēlóng

Munich	慕尼黑	Mìníhēi
Vienna	维也纳	Wéiyǎnà
London	伦敦	Lúndūn
Edinburgh	爱丁堡	Àidīngbǎo
Manchester	曼彻斯特	Mànchèsītè
Oxford	牛津	Niújīn
Cambridge	剑桥	Jiànqiáo

Conversation: What part of China is it?

What part of China is it?	这是中国什么地方?	zhè shì zhōngguó shénme dìfang?
This is Peking (Beijing).	这是北京。	zhè shì běijīng.
What place are you going?	你要去什么地方?	nǐ yào qù shénme dìfang?
I go to Shanghai. Where are you going?	我去上海。你去哪儿?	wǒ qù shànghǎi. nǐ qù nǎr?
I go to Nanjing.	我去南京。	wǒ qù nánjīng.

Conversation: Where are you from?

Where are you from?	你是什么地方人?	nǐ shì shénme dìfang rén?
I am a citizen of Hong Kong. Where are you from?	香港人。你是哪儿的人?	xiānggāngrén. nǐ shì nǎr de rén?
I am a citizen of Xian. Is Hong Kong big?	西安人 香港大吗?	xī'ānrén. xiānggāng dà ma?
No, not so big, very small, but there are a lot of people.	不大, 很小, 可是人很多。	bú dà, hěn xiǎo, kěshì rén hěn duō.

Lesson 12 - Family, People, Profession

home, family	家	jiā	(n)
husband, wife	丈夫, 妻子	zhàng fū, qīzǐ	(n)
introduce	介绍	jièshào	(n)
your friend	你朋友	nǐ péngyou	(n)
my classmate	我的同学	wǒ de tóngxué	(n)
Professor Emerson	张老师	Emerson lǎoshī	(n)
Miss King	王小姐	King xiǎojiě	(n)
come in, enter	进	jìn	(v)
sit (down), have a seat	坐	zuò	(v)
be at, be in	在	zài	(v)
wait	等	děng	(v)

(paternal) grandfather	爷爷	yéye	(n)
(paternal) grandmother	奶奶	nǎinǎi	(n)
(maternal) grandfather	祖父	zǔfù	(n)
(maternal) grandmother	祖母	zǔmǔ	(n)
parents	父母	fùmǔ	(n)
father	父亲	fùqīn	(n)
mother	母亲	mǔqīn	(n)
child, children	孩子	háizi	(n)
son	儿子	érzi	(n)
daughter	女儿	nǚ'ér	(n)
dad, daddy, papa, pa	爸爸	bàba	(n)
mama, ma, mum, mom	妈妈	māma	(n)
(elder) brother	哥哥	gēge	(n)
(younger) brother	弟弟	dìdi	(n)
(elder) sister	姐姐	jiějie	(n)
(younger) sister	妹妹	mèimei	(n)
job	工作	gōngzuò	(n)

worker	工人	gōngrén	(n)
employee	公司职员	gōngsīzhíyuan	(n)
peasant	农民	nóngmín	(n)
driver	司机	sījī	(n)
office worker	职员	zhíyuan	(n)
public servant	公务员	gōngwúyuan	(n)
sale assistant	售货员	shòuhuòyuan	(n)
attendant, waiter	服务员	fúwùyuan	(n)
businessman	商人	shāngrén	(n)
manager	经理	jīnglǐ	(n)
engineer	工程师	gōngchéngshī	(n)
lawyer	律师	lǚshī	(n)
doctor	大夫	dàifu	(n)
hospital	医院	yīyuàn	(n)
in, at	在	zai	(prep)
work	工作	gōngzuò	(v)
be told	听说	tīngshuō	(v)

Conversation: Who is it?

Who is it? Wait a moment.	谁呀? 等一会儿。	shéi ya? děng yíhuìr.
It is me, Richard	是我, 理查。	shì wǒ, lǐ chá
Please come in, take a seat, have some tea.	请进。请坐。请喝茶。	qǐng jìn. qǐng zuò. qǐng hē chá.
Thank you! Is your wife at home?	谢谢! 你爱人在家吗?	xièxie! nǐ àirén zài jiā ma?
Yes, let me introduce to you, this is my wife.	在。我介绍一下, 这是我爱人。	zài. wǒ jièshào yíxià, zhè shì wǒ àirén.

Conversation: How many people are they in your family? Where do they work?

How many people are they in your family?	你家有几口人?	nǐ jiā yǒu jǐ kǒu rén ?
5 people, with my parents and one child.	5口人, 还有我父母和一个孩子。	wǔ kǒu rén, hái yǒu wǒ fùmǔ hé yí gè hái zi.
I have heard you have an elder sister, is it true?	听说你有一个姐姐是吗?	tīngshuō nǐ yǒu yí gè jiějie shì ma ?
Yes she works in Beijing.	是啊她在北京工作。	shì a. tā zài běijīng gōngzuò.
What work does she do ?	她做什么工作?	tā zuò shénme gōngzuò ?
She is a doctor.	她是大夫。	tā shì dàifu.
In which hospital does she work?	她在哪个医院工作?	tā zài nǎ gè yīyuàn gōngzuò ?
She works in the Beijing Hospital.	她在北京医院工作。	tā zài běijīng yīyuàn gōngzuò.

Lesson 13 – Studying And Languages

right, yes	是的	shìde	(adv)
university	大学	dàxué	(n)
student	学生	xuésheng	(n)
university student	大学生	dàxuéshēng	(n)
study, learn	学习	xuéxí	(v)
speciality	专业	zhuānyè	(n)
teach	教	jiāo	(v)

Languages:

Mandarin Chinese	汉语	hànyǔ
Japanese (language)	日语	rìyǔ
Thai (language)	泰语	tàiyǔ
Vietnamese (language)	越南语	yuènnán yǔ
Burmese (language)	缅甸语	miǎndiàn yǔ
Russian (language)	俄语	èyǔ
Indian (language)	印第安语	yīndì'ān yǔ
Pakistani (language)	巴基斯坦语	bājīsītǎn yǔ
Philippino (languages)	菲律宾语	fēilǚbīn yǔyán
European (languages)	欧洲语言	ōuzhōu yǔyán
German (language)	德语	déyǔ
Dutch (language)	荷兰语	hélán yǔ
English (language)	英语	yīngyǔ
French (language)	法语	fǎyǔ
Italian (language)	意大利	yìdàlì yǔ
Spanish (language)	西班牙语	xībānyá yǔ
Portuguese (language)	葡萄牙语	pútáoyá yǔ

Conversation:

Are you a student?	你是学生 吧?	nǐ shì xuésheng ba ?
Yes, I am a university student.	是的, 我是大学生。	shì de, wǒ shì dàxuéshēng.
Of which university are you a student?	你是哪个大学的学生?	nǐ shì nǎ gè dàxué de xuésheng ?
I am a London University student.	我是伦敦大学的学生。	wǒ shì Lúndūn dàxué de xuésheng.
What major (speciality) are you studying ?	你学习什么专业?	nǐ xuéxí shénme zhuānyè ?
I study English. Professor Holmes is our teacher.	学习英语。是李老師教我們。	xuéxí yīngyǔ. shì lǐ lǎoshī jiāo wǒmen.

Conversation: Do you speak English?

foreign language	外语	wàiyǔ	(n)
spoken language	口语	kǒuyǔ	(n)
speak, say	说	shuō	(v)
listen, hear	听	tīng	(v)
should	要	yào	(v)
how	怎么样	zěnmeyàng	(pro)
a little	一点儿	yìdiǎnr	(adv)
relatively	比较	bǐjiào	(adv)
too (much)	太	tài	(adv)
many	多	duō	(adj)
good	好	hǎo	(adj)
passable	凑活, 过得去	còu huó, guò de qù	(adj)
difficult to learn	难学	nán xué	(adj)

Conversation:

Are you learning a foreign language?	你们学习外语吗?	nǐmen xuéxí wàiyǔ ma ?
I am learning English. Do you speak English?	我学英语。你会说英语吗?	wǒ xué yīngyǔ. nǐ huì shuō yīngyǔ ma ?
A little. What about your spoken English?	会说一点儿。你口语怎么样?	huì shuō yìdiǎnr. nǐ kǒuyǔ zěnmeyàng ?
Not good. How is your spoken English?	不好。你英语说得怎么样?	bù hǎo. nǐ yīngyǔ shuō de zěnmeyàng ?
Not that bad. The teacher teaches relatively well.	还可以。老师教得比较好。	hái kěyǐ. lǎoshī jiāo de bǐjiào hǎo.
Do you think English is difficult to learn?	你觉得英语难学吗?	nǐ juéde yīngyǔ nánxué ma ?
Not too difficult, but one has to listen to it and to speak it a lot.	不太难, 但是要多听, 多说。	bú tài nán, dànshì yào duō tīng duō shuō.

Lesson 14 - Days, Months, Years, And Date

The Week	星期	xīng qī	(n)
Monday	星期一	xīng qī yī	(n)
Tuesday	星期二	xīng qī èr	(n)
Wednesday	星期三	xīng qī sān	(n)
Thursday	星期四	xīng qī sì	(n)
Friday	星期五	xīng qī wǔ	(n)
Saturday	星期六	xīng qī liù	(n)
Sunday	星期日 / 天	xīng qī rì / tiān	(n)

Twenty years ago	二十年前	èrshí nián qián	(adv)
Eight months ago	八个月前	bā gè yuè qián	(adv)
Six weeks ago	六个星期前	liù gè xīngqī qián	(adv)
Three days ago	三天前	sān tiān qián	(adv)
The day before yesterday	前天	qián tiān	(adv)
Yesterday	昨天	zuótiān	(adv)
Today	今天	jīntiān	(adv)
Tomorrow	明天	míngtiān	(adv)
The day after tomorrow	后天	hòu tiān	(adv)
In three days	在三天内	zài sān tiān nèi	(adv)
In four weeks	在四周里	zài sì zhōu lǐ	(adv)
In five months	在五个月内	zài wǔ gè yuè nèi	(adv)
In ten years	在十年内	zài shí gè nián	(adv)

Last week	上个星期	shàng gè xīngqī	(adv)
This week	这个星期	zhè gè xīngqī	(adv)
Next week	下个星期	xià gè xīngqī	(adv)

The Year	年	nián	(n)
The Month	月	yuè	(n)
January	1 月	yī yuè	(n)
February	2 月	èr yuè	(n)
March	3 月	sān yuè	(n)
April	4 月	sì yuè	(n)
May	5 月	wǔ yuè	(n)
June	6 月	liù yuè	(n)
July	7 月	qī yuè	(n)
August	8 月	bā yuè	(n)
September	9 月	jiǔ yuè	(n)
October	10 月	shí yuè	(n)
November	11 月	shíyī yuè	(n)
December	12 月	shíèr yuè	(n)

Conversation: What day is today?

What day is today?	今天几月几号?	jīntiān jǐ yuè jǐ hào?
It is May the 23rd.	今天 5 月 23 号.	jīntiān 5 yuè 23 hào.
What day of the week will be tomorrow?	明天星期几	míngtiān xīngqī jǐ?
Tomorrow will be Saturday.	明天星期六	míngtiān xīngqīliù.

Conversation: What day of the week?

What day of the week was the 25th of May?	5 月 25 号是星期几?	5 yuè 25 hào shì xīngqī jǐ?
The 25th of May was a Sunday.	5 月 25 号是星期天	5 yuè 25 hào shì xīngqītiān.
What day of the week will be the 8th of this month?	这个月 8 号是星期几?	zhè gè yuè 8 hào shì xīngqī jǐ?
the 8th of this month will be a Thursday.	这个月 8 号是星期四	zhè gè yuè 8 hào shì xīngqīsì.

What will be the date of next Wednesday?	下个星期三是几月几号?	xià gè xīngqīsān shì jǐ yuè jǐ hào?
Next Wednesday will be the 8th of May.	下个星期三是5月28号.	xià gè xīngqīsān shì 5 yuè 28 hào.

Conversation: In which year are we? What year is it?

Are we in (or: Do we have; or: Is it) the year 2013?	今年是不是2005年?	jīnnián shì bú shì 2005 nián?
We are not in (or: We do not have; or: It is not) the year 2013, we are in 2014, 2013 was the last year.	今年不是2005年 今年是2006年 去年是2005年.	jīnnián bú shì 2005 nián, jīnnián shì. 2006 nián qùnián shì 2005 nián.

Lesson 15 - Birthdays, Age

birth	出生	chūshēng	(v)
a modal particle	的	de	(part)
birthday	生日	shēngrì	(n)
how much, how many	多	duō	(n)
how old	多大	duō dà	(n)
year (of age)	岁	sui	(n)
time, moment	时候	shíhou	(n)
when	什么时候	shénmeshíhou	(n)
arrive, up to	到	dào	(v)
day	天	tiān	(n)
plan, intend	打算	dǎsuàn	(v)
return	回	huí	(v)
country	国	guó	(n)
also, too	还	hái	(adv)
come	来	lái	(v)

Conversation:

Mister, in which year were you born?	先生您是哪年出生的?	xiānsheng, nín shì nǎ nián chūshēng de?
I was born in 1976.	我是1976年出生的.	wǒ shì 1976 nián chūshēng de.
When is your birthday? (Your birthday is what month what day?)	您的生日是几月几号?	nín de shēngrì shì jǐ yuè jǐ hào ?
The 5th of march.(My birthday is March, 5th)	我的生日是3月5号.	wǒ de shēngrì shì 3 yuè 5 hào.
How old are you? (this year)	你今年多大?	nǐ jīnnián duō dà ?
I am 30.	我今年30岁.	wǒ jīnnián 30 suì.

Conversation: When will you be in Beijing?

When did you arrive in Beijing?	您是什么时候到北京的?	nín shì shénme shíhou dào Běijīng de?
I arrive July the 8th.	我是8月7号到北京的.	wǒ shì 8 yuè 7 hào dào Běijīng de.
When (what day) do you want to go to Shanghai?	您想哪天去上海?	nín xiǎng nǎ tiān qù Shànghǎi ?
I want to go to Shanghai next friday.	我想下星期五去上海.	wǒ xiǎng xià xīngqīwǔ qù Shànghǎi.

Conversation 4 : When will you go back?

When will you go back to your country?	你打算什么时候回国?	nǐ dǎsuàn shénme shíhou huí guó ?
I shall go back in September next year.	我打算明年9月回国.	wǒ dǎsuàn míngnián 9 yuè huí guó.

Lesson 16 - Time, Daily Schedule

time, moment	时候	shíhou	(n)
morning	早上	zǎoshang	(n)
a.m. (morning time)	上午	shàngwǔ	(adv)
midday, noon	中午	zhōngwǔ	(n)
p.m. (afternoon time)	下午	xiàwǔ	(adv)
night, late evening	晚上	wǎnshang	(n)
to rise (from bed)	起(床)	qǐ (chuáng)	(v)
to get up	起床	qǐ chuáng	(v)
o'clock (of the clock)	点	diǎn	(n)
minute	分	fēn	(n)
a quarter past	刻	kè	(n)
a half past	半	bàn	(n)
now	现在	xiàn zài	(n)
after	以后	yǐhòu	(v)
about, or so	左右	zuǒ yòu	(v)
every	每	měi	(adj)
every day	每天	měi tiān	(n)
some	有的	yǒude	(n)
sometimes	有时候	yǒu shíhou	(adv)
be short of	差	chà	(v)
begin, start	开始	kāishǐ	(v)
class, lesson, course	课	kè	(n)
attend class	上课	shàng kè	(v)
have a break	休息	xiūxi	(v)
eat, having a meal	吃饭	chīfàn	(v)
lunch	午饭	wǔfàn	(n)
drink coffee	喝咖啡	hē kāfēi	(v)
drink tea	喝茶	hē chá	(v)

smoke	吸烟	xī yān	(v)
go to the toilet	去厕所	qù cèsuǒ	(v)
make a phone call	打电话	dǎ diànhuà	(v)
family, home	家	jiā	(v)

Conversation:

What time is it?	现在几点了?	xiànzài jǐ diǎn le ?
It's a quarter to eight.	现在差 1 刻 8 点.	xiànzài chà yí kè bā diǎn.
What time do you get up every morning?	每天早上你几点起床?	měitiān zǎoshàng nǐ jǐ diǎn qǐ chuáng?
I wake up at half past six.	我 6 点半起床.	wǒ liùdiǎn bàn qǐchuáng.
What time do you have class in the morning?	你上午什么时候上课?	nǐ shàngwǔ shénme shíhou shàngkè?
We begin our class at 8:00 a.m.	我们上午 8 点开始上课.	wǒmen shàngwǔ bā diǎn kāishǐ shàngkè.
What time do you have a break?	你们几点休息?	nǐmen jǐdiǎn xiūxi?
We shall have a break at about ten past ten.	我们 10 点 10 分左右休息.	wǒmen shí diǎn shí fēn zuǒyòu xiūxi.
What do you do during the break?	休息的时候你们做什么?	xiūxi de shíhou nǐmen zuò shénme?
Some people have coffee, some people smoke.	有的人喝咖啡, 有的人吸烟.	yǒude rén hē kāfēi, yǒude rén xīyān.
At what time do you have lunch?	中午你几点吃午饭?	zhōngwǔ nǐ jǐdiǎn chī wǔfàn?
Sometimes at 1 p.m., sometimes at 2 p.m. After lunch, I go back home.	有时候一点有时候两点. 吃午饭以后, 我回家.	yǒushíhou yí diǎn, yǒushíhou liǎng diǎn. chī wǔfàn yǐhòu, wǒ huí jiā.

Lesson 17 – Going Out To Public Places

hotel	饭店	fàndiàn	(n)
hospital	医院	yīyuàn	(n)
cafe	咖啡馆	kāfēiguǎn	(n)
cinema	电影院	diànyǐngyuàn	(n)
university	大学	dàxué	(n)
classroom	教室	jiàoshì	(n)
bank	银行	yínháng	(n)
bookshop	书店	shūdiàn	(n)
post office	邮局	yóujú	(n)
with	跟	gēn	(prep)
together	一起	yìqǐ	(adv)
boyfriend	男朋友	nán péngyou	(n)
girlfriend	女朋友	nǚ péngyou	(n)
lover / husband / wife	爱人	àiren	(v)
classmate	同学	tóngxué	(n)
colleague	同事	tóngshì	(n)
child	孩子	háizi	(n)
look at, see	看	kàn	(v)
watch a film (movie)	看电影	kàn diànyǐng	(v)
see a teacher	看老师	kàn lǎoshī	(v)
buy things	买东西	mǎi dōngxi	(v)
have	有	yǒu	(v)
do	干, 做	gàn, zuò	(v)
there	那儿	nàr	(pro)
free time	空儿	kòngr	(n)
before	以前	yǐqián	(n)
after	以后	yǐhòu	(n)
not	没	méi	(adv)

Conversation: Where do you go this morning?

Where will you go this morning?	今天上午你去哪儿?	jīntiān shàngwǔ nǐ qù nǎr ?
I shall go to the "Beijing Hotel".	我去北京饭店。	wǒ qù Běijīng fàndiàn.
What will you go to the Beijing Hotel for?	你去北京饭店干什么?	nǐ qù Běijīng fàndiàn gàn shénme?
I am going there to see a friend.	我去那儿看一个朋友。	wǒ qù nàr kàn yí gè péngyou.
Whom are you going with (together)?	你跟谁一起去?	nǐ gēn shéi yìqǐ qù?
I shall go with my girlfriend.	我跟我的女朋友一起去。	wǒ gēn wǒ de nǚ péngyou yìqǐ qù.
Do you have free time this afternoon?	今天下午你有空儿吗?	jīntiān xiàwǔ nǐ yǒu kòngr ma?
I don't have free time before 3 p.m.	3 点以前我没有空儿。	sāndiǎn yǐqián wǒ méi yǒu kòngr.
I shall go to watch a film this afternoon. Do you want to come too?	下午我去看电影。你去不去?	xiàwǔ wǒ qù kàn diànyǐng. nǐ qù bú qù ?
Yes. And where do you want to go after the film?	去。看完电影你想去哪儿?	qù. kànwán diànyǐng nǐ xiǎng qù nǎr ?

Conversation: Shall we go to the restaurant?

restaurant	饭馆儿	fànguǎnr	(n)
eat	吃	chī	(v)
rice, meal	饭	fàn	(n)
good	好	hǎo	(adj)
is it ok?	好吗	hǎoma?	(adj)
all right	行	xíng	(adj)
go	去	qù	(v)

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shop, store	商店	shāngdiàn	(n)
buy	买	mǎi	(v)
thing	东西	dōngxi	(n)

We go together to eat in a restaurant, ok?	我们一起去饭馆儿吃饭，好吗？	wǒmen yìqǐ qù fànguǎnr chīfàn, hǎo ma?
Ok. Where are you going now?	行。现在你上哪儿去？	xíng. xiànzài nǐ shàng nǎr qù ?
I'm going to buy some stuff?	我去商店买东西。	wǒ qù shāngdiàn mǎi dōngxi.

Lesson 18 – Buying Daily Necessities

this	这	zhè	(pro)
that	那	nà	(pro)
thing	东西	dōngxi	(n)
fruit	水果	shuǐguǒ	(n)
apple	个苹果	ge píngguǒ	(n)
notebook	个本子	ge běnzi	(n)
cup, glass	个杯子	ge bēizi	(n)
newspaper	张报纸	zhāng bàozhǐ	(n)
toilet paper	卫生纸	wèishēngzhǐ	(n)
map	张地图	zhāng dìtú	(n)
book	本书	běn shū	(n)
magazine	本杂志	běn zázhì	(n)
dictionary	本词典	běn cídiǎn	(n)
pen	钢笔	gāng bǐ	(n)
umbrella	把雨伞	bǎyǔsǎn	(n)
napkin paper	餐巾纸	cānjīnzhǐ	(n)

towel	毛巾	máojīn	(n)
cup, glass	杯子	bēi zi	(n)

Conversation :

What is this?	这是什么？	zhè shì shénme ?
This is a book. And what is that thing?	这是书。那是什么东西？	zhè shì shū. nà shì shénme dōngxi?
That is a fruit.	那是水果。	nà shì shuǐguǒ.
What fruit is that?	那是什么水果？	nà shì shénme shuǐguǒ ?
That is an apple.	那是苹果。	nà shì píngguǒ.
How many pens are there?	这是几支钢笔？	zhè shì jǐ zhī gāngbǐ ?
There are 3 pens.	这是三支钢笔。	zhè shì sān zhī gāngbǐ.
Do you have a dictionary?	你有没有词典？	nǐ yǒu méi yǒu cídiǎn ?
I have a dictionary.	我有词典。	wǒ yǒu cídiǎn.
How many dictionary do you have?	你有几本词典？	nǐ yǒu jǐ běn cídiǎn ?
I have 3 dictionaries.	我有 3 本词典。	wǒ yǒu sān běn cídiǎn.
Is this your dictionary?	这本词典是你的吗？	zhè běn cídiǎn shì nǐ de ma ?
Yes, this is my dictionary.	是的，这本词典是我的。	shì de, zhè běn cídiǎn shì wǒde.

Availability And Price

there is	有	yǒu	(v)
some	些	xiē	(m)
want, wish	要	yào	(v)

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kind, sort	种	zhǒng	(m)
how many, how much	多少	duōshao	(pro)
money	钱	qián	(n)
(unit of money = yuan)	块	kuài	(m)
also	还	hái	(adv)
how	怎么	zěnmē	(pro)
sell	卖	mài	(v)
almost, nearly	差不多	chàbùduō	(adv)
again	再	zài	(n)
come, take	来	lái	(v)
(unit of weight) 0.5 kg	斤	jīn	(m)
half	半	bàn	(n)
all told, in all	一共	yí gòng	(adv)
(a unit of money, cent)	分	fēn	(m)
small change	零钱	língqián	(n)
give change	找	zhǎo	(v)
(a modal particle)	吧	ba	(part)
pen	铅笔	qiānbǐ	(n)
magazine	杂志	zázhì	(n)
glass	杯子	bēizi	(n)
notebook	本子	běnzǐ	(n)
bag	包	bào	(n)
banana	香蕉	xiāngjiāo	(n)
cherry	樱桃	yīngtáo	(n)

Conversation : Do you sell Beijing maps?

Miss, do you sell (have) Beijing maps here?	小姐，有北京地图吗？	xiǎojiě, yǒu Běijīng dìtú ma ?
Yes, those all are. What kind dou you want?	有，这些都是。你要哪种？	yǒu, zhè xiē dōu shì. nǐ yào nǎ zhǒng ?

This kind of map, how much for one?	这种地图多少钱一张？	zhè zhǒng dìtú duōshao qián yì zhāng?
2.5 Yuans for one.	两块 5 一张。	liǎng kuài wǔ yì zhāng.
I want one.	我要一张。	wǒ yào yì zhāng.
How much for one pound of grape? (grapefruit, how much one pound?)	葡萄多少钱一斤？	pútáo duōshao qián yì jīn ?
2.5 Yuans one pound. How many pound do you want?	两块 5 一斤。你要几斤？	liǎng kuài wǔ yì jīn. nǐ yào jǐ jīn ?
I want 3 pounds and an half.	我要 3 斤半。	wǒ yào sān jīn bàn.
Do you need something else?	您还要什么？	nín hái yào shénme ?
I also want 3 pounds of strawberry. How do you sell watermelon?	还要 3 斤草莓。西瓜怎么卖？	hái yào sān jīn cǎoméi. xīguā zěnmē mài ?
8 Maos one pound. One is around 4 pounds.	8 毛一斤。一个差不多有 4 斤。	bā máo yì jīn. yí gè chàbùduō yǒu sì jīn.
I take a watermelon aswell.	再来一个西瓜。	zài lái yí gè xīguā.
How much in all?	一共多少钱？	yí gòng duōshao qián ?
In all, 29.95 Yuans (29 Yuans 9 Maos 5 Cents).	一共 2 9 块 9 毛 5 分。	yí gòng èrshíjiǔ kuài jiǔ máo wǔ fēn.
I don't have small change, here is 50 (Yuans), please give the change.	我没零钱这是 5 0 ，您找吧！	wǒ méi língqián, zhè shì wǔshí, nín zhǎo ba !

Lesson 19 - Colour, Size

size	尺寸	chǐ cùn	(n)
a bit (of), a little (bit)	一点	yī diǎn	(adv)
natural fibre	天然纤维	tiān rán xiān wéi	(n)
synthetic	合成的	hé chéng de	(adj)
business suit	西装	xī zhuāng	(n)
evening dress	晚礼服	wǎn lǐ fú	(n)
belt	腰带	yāo dài	(n)
pocket	口袋	kǒu dai	(n)
sleeve	袖子	xiù zi	(n)
sleeveless	无袖	wú xiù	(n)
cuff	袖口	xiù kǒu	(n)
button	纽扣	niǔ kòu	(n)
strap	肩带	jiān dài	(n)
strapless	无肩带	wú jiān dài	(adj)
without	无	wú	(adj)
collar	衣领	yī lǐng	(n)
neckline	领口	lǐng kǒu	(n)
seam	缝合线	féng hé xiàn	(n)
hem	裙边	qún biān	(n)
bra	胸罩	xiōng zhào	(n)
underwired bra	内有金属丝的胸罩	nèi yǒu jīnshǔs ī de xiōng zhào	(n)
corset	紧身胸衣	jǐnshēn xiōng yī	(n)
tailored	量身定制	liáng shēn dìng zhì	(adj)
waistband	腰带	yāo dài	(n)
waistcoat	马甲	mǎ jiǎ	(n)

shoulderpad	垫肩	diàn jiān	(n)
knee-length	及膝长度	jí xī chángdù	(adj)
ankle-length	及脚踝长	jí jiǎo huái cháng	(adj)
garter	松紧袜带	sōng jǐn wà dà	(n)
stockings	长筒袜	cháng tǒng wà	(n)
tights	连裤袜	lián kù wà	(n)
socks	袜子	wà zi	(n)

Yellow	黄色	huángsè
Red	红色	hóng
Blue	蓝色	lán sè
Green	绿色	lǜsè
Orange	橙色	chéngsè
Purple	紫色	zǐsè
White	白色	báisè
Black	黑色	hēisè
Grey	灰色	huīsè
Brown	棕色	zōngsè
Colourful	丰富多彩	fēngfù duōcǎi
Colourless	无色	wú sè

Conversation:

I want a different colour!	我想不同的颜色!	wǒ xiǎng bùtóng de yánsè!
Do you have this in another colour?	这个有别的颜色吗?	zhègè yǒu bié de yán sè ma?
Which colour do you want?	你想要什么颜色?	nǐ xiǎng yào shénmē yán sè ?

Apparel Size Conversion Charts / 服装尺码换算表

International size conversion charts for clothes (womens' and mens' clothing), underwear and shoes help you pick the right size while shopping. The sizes might differ slightly from one maker to another.

Womens' Clothing 女装

Womens' Outerwear (Jackets, skirts, blouses, shirts, coats, suits)

Standard	Size details					
China	160-165 /84-86	165-170 /88-90	167-172 /92-96	168-173 /98-102	170-176 /106-110	
International	XS	S	M	L	XL	XXL
Europe	34	34-36	38-40	42	44	46
Germany	36	38	40	42	44	46
UK	8	10	12	14	16	18
USA	2	4-6	8-10	12-14	16-18	20-24

Womens' Underwear (Knickers, lingerie, negligees, pyjamas)

Standard	Size details						
China	S	M	L	XL	XXL	XXXL	
International	XS	S	M	L	XL	XXL	XXXL
Europe	32	34	36	38	40	42	44
France	34	36	38	40	42	44	46
Italy	38	40	42	44	46	48	50
UK	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
USA	2	4	6	8	10	12	14

Bra (under bust size)

Standard	Size details												
China	76	81	86	91	96	101	106	112	117	122	127	132	137
Europe		70	75	80	85	90							
France		85	90	95	100	105							
Italy		1	2	3	4	5							
UK	30	32	34	36	38	40	42	44	46	48	50	52	54
USA	30	32	34	36	38	40	42	44	46	48	50	52	54

Bra (cup size)

Standard	Size details												
China	A	B	C	D	E	F	G						
Europe	AA	A	B	C	D	E	F						
France	AA	A	B	C	D	E	F						
Italy		B		B	C	D	DD	E	F				
UK	AA	A	B	C	D	DD	E	F	FF	G	GG	H	HH
USA	AA	A	B	C	D	DD	DDD/E	F	FF	G	GG	H	HH

Womens' shoes

Standard	Size details							
Foot length (cm)	22.5	23	23.5	24	24.5	25	25.5	26
China	35	36	37	38	39	39	40	40
Europe (EU)	35	36	37	38	39	39	40	40
UK	4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5
USA	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5
Japan	22	22.5	23	23.5	24	24.5	25	25.5

Mens' Clothing 男装**Mens' Outerwear** (Dinner jackets, cardigans, coats, t-shirts, suits)

Standard	Size details				
China	165/88-90	170/96-98	175/108-110	180/118-122	185/126-130
International	S	M	L	XL	XXL

Mens' Outerwear (Shirts)

Standard	Size details				
China	36-37	38-39	40-42	43-44	45-47
International	S	M	L	XL	XXL

Mens' Outerwear (Trousers)

Standard	Size details				
China	42	44	46	48	50
Waist	68-72 cm	71-76 cm	75-80 cm	79-84 cm	83-88 cm
Length	99 cm	101.5 cm	104 cm	106.5 cm	109 cm

Mens' Underwear (Briefs, boxershorts, vests)

Standard	Size details				
China	72-76	76-81	81-87	87-93	93-98
International	S	M	L	XL	XXL
USA (inches)	28-30	30-32	32-34	34-38	38-42

Mens' shoes

Standard	Size details							
Foot length (cm)	24.5	25	25.5	26	26.5	27	27.5	28
China	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46
Europe (EU)	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46

UK	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5
USA	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10	10.5
Japan	24	24.5	25	25.5	26	26.5	27	27.5

Socks

Standard	Size details					
Europe	20 1/4	21 1/2	21 1/2	24	25 1/4	26 1/2
Japan	20.5	21.5	23	24.5	25.5	27
UK	8	8 1/2	9	9 1/2	10	10 1/2
USA	8	8 1/2	9	9 1/2	10	10 1/2

Hat

Standard	Size details							
Japan	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
UK	21	21 1/4	21 1/2	22	22 1/2	23	23 1/4	23 1/2
USA	21	21 1/4	21 1/2	22	22 1/2	23	23 1/4	23 1/2
Europe	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60

Conversation:

Do you have this in a larger size?	有没有大一点的尺寸?	yǒu méi yǒu dà yī diǎn de chǐ cùn ?
Do you have this in a smaller size?	有没有小一点的尺寸?	yǒu méi yǒu xiǎo yī diǎn de chǐ cùn ?
May I try this on?	我可以试穿一下吗?	wǒ kě yǐ shì chuān yī xià ma ?

Lesson 20 - Menu, Foods, Drinks, In the Restaurant

Western cuisine	西餐	xī cān	(n)
French cuisine	法国餐	fàguó cān	(n)
Italian cuisine	意大利餐	yìdàlì cān	(n)
German cuisine	德国餐	déguó cān	(n)
Turkish cuisine	土耳其餐	tǔ'ěrqí cān	(n)
Chinese cuisine	中餐	zhōng cān	(n)
Cantonese cuisine	粤菜	yuè cài	(n)
Szechuan cuisine	川菜	chuān cài	(n)

menu	菜单	càidān	(n)
dish	菜	cài	(n)
order (dishes)	点	diǎn	(v)
(a) hot dish	道热菜	dào rè cài	(n)
(a) cold dish	道凉菜	dào liáng cài	(n)

vegetables	青菜	qīngcài	(n)
cooked rice	米饭	mǐfàn	(n)
mushroom	香菇	xiānggū	(n)
cucumber	黄瓜	huángguā	(n)
tomato	西红柿	xīhóngshì	(n)
carrots	胡萝卜	húluóbo	(n)
cauliflower	菜花	càihuā	(n)
baked beans	烤豆	kǎo dòu	(n)
asparagus	芦笋	lúsǔn	(n)
boiled potatoes	煮土豆	zhǔ tǔdòu	(n)
fried potatoes	炒土豆	chǎo tǔdòu	(n)
peas	豌豆	wāndòu	(n)

seafood	海鲜	hǎixiān	(n)
fish	鱼	yú	(n)
shrimp	虾	xiā	(n)
meat	肉	ròu	(n)
chicken	鸡	jī	(n)
egg	鸡蛋	jīdàn	(n)
roast duck	烤鸭	kǎoyā	(n)
beef	牛肉	niúròu	(n)
pork	猪肉	zhūròu	(n)
lamb	羊肉	yángyòu	(n)
venison	鹿肉	lù ròu	(n)

Some Basic Dishes:

Sandwich	三明治	sānmíngzhì	(n)
Hamburger	汉堡	hànbǎo	(n)
noodles	面条	miàntiáo	(n)
dumpling	饺子	jiǎozi	(n)
steamed stuffed bun	包子	bāozi	(n)
steamed bun	馒头	mántou	(n)
Spaghetti	意粉	yì fěn	(n)
Lasagne	千层面	qiān céngmiàn	(n)
Pizza	比萨	bǐsà	(n)
soup	汤	tāng	(n)
soft-boiled egg	软煮鸡蛋	ruǎn zhǔ jīdàn	(n)
hard-boiled egg	煮鸡蛋	zhǔ jīdàn	(n)
fried egg	炒鸡蛋	chǎo jīdàn	(n)
scrambled eggs	炒鸡蛋	chǎo jīdàn	(n)
steak, well done	牛排, 全熟	niú pái, quán shú	(n)
steak medium	牛排, 半分熟	niú pái, bàn fēn shú	(n)
steak, rare	牛排, 三分熟	niú pái, sān fēn shú	(n)

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Wiener Schnitzel	维也纳炸牛排	wéiyǎnà zhà niúpái	(n)
Stew	炖肉	dùn ròu	(n)
Goulash	菜炖牛肉	cài dùn niú ròu	(n)
Ragout	蔬菜炖肉	shū cài dùn ròu	(n)
Meatballs	肉丸	ròu wán	(n)
Sausage	香肠	xiāngcháng	(n)
Barbecue	烧烤	shāokǎo	(n)
Fish and Chips	炸鱼和薯条	zhà yú hé shǔ tiáo	(n)
Doner Kebab	土耳其烤肉串	tǔěrqí kǎoròu chuàn	(n)
English Breakfast	英式早餐	yīng shì zǎocān	(n)
Piece of bread	片面包	piàn miàn bāo	(n)

Some Basic Drinks:

table water	表水	biǎo shuǐ	(n)
coffee (black)	咖啡（黑）	kāfēi (hēi)	(n)
coffee with milk	咖啡与牛奶	kāfēi yǔ niúǎi	(v)
black tea (Earl Grey)	红（伯爵）茶	hóng (bójué) chá	(n)
black tea (Darjeeling)	红（大吉岭茶）	hóng (dàjílǐng chá)	(n)
green tea	绿茶	lǜchá	(n)
scented tea	花茶	huāchá	(n)
cola	可乐	kělè	(n)
wine	葡萄酒	pútaojiǔ	(n)
(bottle of) wine	瓶红酒	píng hóngjiǔ	(n)
(a glass of) beer	杯啤酒	bēi píjiǔ	(n)
white spirit	白酒	báijiǔ	(n)

About Feeling and Taste:

hungry	饿	é	(adj)
thirsty	渴	kě	(adj)
taste	尝	cháng	(v)

delicious	好吃	hǎochī	(adj)
taste, try	尝	cháng	(v)
salt	盐	yán	(n)
salty	咸	xián	(adj)
pepper	胡椒	hújiāo	(n)
vinegar	醋	cù	(n)
sour	酸	suān	(adj)
olive oil	橄榄油	gǎnlǎn yóu	(n)
spicy, peppery	辣	là	(adj)
hot, warm	热	rè	(adj)
sweet	甜	tián	(adj)
very, extremely	非常	fēicháng	(adv)
light	淡	dàn	(adj)
light, not greasy	清淡	qīngdàn	(adj)

Other Words:

too (much)	太	tài	(adv)
enough	够...的	gòu...de	(adv)
not bad	不错	búcuò	(adj)
good (to drink)	好喝	hǎohē	(adj)
a little	有点儿	yǒudiǎnr	(adv)
a bit	下	xià	(m)
wait	等	děng	(v)
a moment	一会儿	yí huìr	(n)
give	给	gěi	(v)
take	拿	ná	(v)
like	喜欢	xǐhuān	(v)
love, like	爱	ài	(v)
use	用	yòng	(v)
here	这儿	zhèr	(pro)

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expensive	贵	guì	(adj)
cheap	便宜	piányi	(adv)
agree	同意	tóngyì	(v)
all right	行	xíng	(adj)

Some Table Tools:

(sheet of) napkin	张餐巾纸	zhāng cānjīnzhǐ	(n)
knife	把刀子	bǎ dāozi	(n)
fork	叉子	chāzi	(n)
spoon	勺子, 调羹	sháo zi, diào gēng	(n)
chopsticks	双筷子	shuāng kuài zi	(n)
glass	杯子	bēizi	(n)
bottle	瓶	píng	(m)
pot	壶	hú	(m)
plate	盘	pán	(n)
bowl	碗	wǎn	(n)

Some Words and Expressions:

most, -est	最	zuì	(adv)
should, must	应该	yīnggāi	(v)
know	知道	zhīdào	(v)
on	上	shàng	(n)
often	经常	jīngcháng	(n)
of course	当然	dāngrán	(adv)
it seems	看来	kànlái	(v)
right, yes, correct	对	duì	(prep)
and	和	hé	(conj)
or	还是	háishì	(conj)
and, also	而且	érqiě	(conj)
then	那	nà	(conj)

how	怎么	zěnmē	(pro)
feel, think	觉得	juéde	(v)
know, be able to	会	huì	(v)
slow	慢	màn	(adj)
can	可以	kěyǐ	(v)
only	只	zhǐ	(adv)
bill	结账	jiézhàng	(n)
credit card	信用卡	xìnyòngkǎ	(n)
pay the bill	买单, 结账	mǎi dān, jiézhàng	(v)
accept	收	shōu	(v)
cash	现金	xiànjīn	(adj)

Conversation:

Do you have a menu?	有菜单吗?	yǒu càidān ma ?
Here is the menu. Please have a look.	这是菜单。你们先看一下。	zhè shì càidān. nǐmen xiān kàn yíxià.
What would you (two) like to eat?	你们二位吃点儿什么?	nǐmen èr wèi chī diǎnr shénme ?
What soup do you want?	要什么汤?	yào shénme tāng?
What do you prefer to eat?	你最喜欢吃什么?	nǐ zuì xǐhuān chī shénme ?
Is this dish spicy?	这个菜辣不辣?	zhè gè cài là bú là ?
I like dumplings.	我最喜欢吃饺子。	wǒ zuì xǐhuān chī jiǎozi.
Do you know what kind of dish it is?	你知道是什么菜吗?	nǐ zhīdào shì shénme cài ma ?
What hot dishes are on the menu?	菜单上有什么热菜?	càidān shàng yǒu shénme rècài ?
There are vegetables, fish, pork, chicken, seafood.	有青菜, 鱼, 肉, 鸡和海鲜。	yǒu qīngcài, yú, ròu, jī hé hǎixiān.

What kind of food do you often eat?	你常吃什么主食?	nǐ cháng chī shénme zhǔshí ?
Rice and steamed bun.	米饭和馒头。	mǐfàn hé mántou.
What hot dishes would you like?	要什么热菜?	yào shénme rècài ?
No, i like salty food.	不, 爱吃咸的。	bù, ài chī xián de.
please bring some salt.	拿点儿 盐来。	ná diǎnr yán lái.
Do you want something else?	还要什么吗?	hái yào shénme ma ?
Waitress, do you have some salt?	小姐, 有盐吗?	xiǎojiě, yǒu yán ma ?
Enjoy your meal.	慢慢吃。	mànmàn chī.
An egg and tomato soup, and a bowl of rice.	一个西红柿鸡蛋汤, 一碗米饭。	yíge xīhóngshì jīdàn tāng, yì wǎn mǐfàn.
Gentlemen, what do you drink?	先生, 你们喝点儿什么?	xiānsheng, nǐmen hē diǎnr shénme ?
Do you have french wine?	有法国葡萄酒吗?	yǒu fǎguó pútāojiǔ ma ?
Sorry, we don't.	对不起, 我们这儿没有。	duìbùqǐ, wǒmen zhèr méi yǒu.
Do you like to drink white spirit?	你喜欢喝白酒吗?	nǐ xǐhuān hē báijiǔ ma ?
I don't really like. I like to drink tea.	不太喜欢喝白酒, 喜欢喝茶。	bú tài xǐhuān hē báijiǔ, xǐhuān hē chá.
A glass of Coca-Cola, do you have beer?	要杯可乐。你们这儿有啤酒吗?	yào bēi kělè. nǐmen zhèr yǒu píjiǔ ma ?
Bring three glasses.	拿 3 个杯子。	ná sān gè bēizi.
Then bring a bottle of beer and a pot of tea.	那, 来一瓶啤酒和一壶茶。	nà, lái yì píng píjiǔ hé yì hú chá.
Yes, we have Qingdao beer and Yanjing beer.	有, 有青岛啤酒和燕京啤酒。	yǒu, yǒu qīngdǎo píjiǔ hé yānjīng píjiǔ.

Do you like to drink scented tea or green tea?	你喜欢喝花茶还是绿茶?	nǐ xǐhuān hē huāchá háishì lǜchá ?
Scented tea. I often drink scented tea.	花茶。我经常喝花茶。	huāchá. wǒ jīngcháng hē huāchá.
Have you ever drunk green tea?	你喝过绿茶吗?	nǐ hē guo lǜchá ma ?
No, Is green tea expensive? Is it good?	没有。绿茶贵不贵? 好喝吗?	méi yǒu. lǜchá guì bu guì ? hǎo hē ma ?
It's not cheap, it's very expensive. I think it's really good.	不便宜, 很贵。我觉得很好喝。	bù piányi, hěn guì. wǒ juéde hěn hǎo hē.

Come on, let's make a toast to our friendship.	来, 为我们的友谊干杯。	lai, wèi wǒmen de yǒuyì gānbēi.
Cheers!	干杯。	gānbēi.
to your health	为了你的健康干杯!	wèi le nǐ de jiàn kāng gān bēi !
to our success	为了我们的成功!	wèi le wǒmen de chéng gōng !
to your birthday	为了你的生日!	wèi le nǐ de shēng rì !
to the friendship of the people of our two countries	两国人民的友谊	liǎngguó rénmin de yǒuyì
The bill please.	买单!	mǎi dān!
Can I use a credit card to pay the bill?	用信用卡结账可以吗?	yòng xínyòngkǎ jiézhàng kěyǐ ma ?
No, we only accept cash.	不行。我们这儿只收现金。	bù xíng. wǒmen zhèr zhǐ shōu xiànjīn.

LETTER-WRITING AND FORMS OF ADDRESS

English is **the** international business language, and contrary to a wide-spread belief, there is no significant difference between British and American English. Tip: It shows courtesy and seriousness when you treat written letters on paper and e-mails properly alike!

Postal addresses: In most English-speaking countries, the best form of postal address on envelopes has the Post Town in capital letters, followed by the county or state in small letters, followed by the postcode. (Letters from abroad must include the country name):

Private letter, British address:	Private letter, American address:
Mr Angus Hudson 104, Hare Lane GUILDFORD Surrey GU8 1JG United Kingdom (or: UK)	Mr. Angus Hudson 227, Lincoln Drive CHICAGO Illinois 11872 United States of America (or: USA)

When you want to send a letter to a particular person within a company, the company name comes first then the recipient preceded by the abbreviation "**c/o**". (Do the same if you wish to send a letter to a particular person who is living in a private household of someone else. Here the first line would be the name of the person who owns the household: Mrs Jane Bridges, then: c/o Mr Angus Hudson etc.)

Business letter, British address:	Business letter, American address:
James Fuller & Co. Ltd. Textile Manufacturers c/o Mr Angus Hudson 328, London Road YORK North Yorkshire NY7 1JY United Kingdom (or: UK)	James Fuller & Co. Inc. Textile Manufacturers c/o Mr. Angus Hudson 227, East 55 Street NEW YORK New York 10092 United States of America (or: USA)

An address on the envelope to or in China is usually written in only one or two lines. It should be written in Chinese. However, due to the fact that most western people are not familiar with Chinese characters, addresses should be written either in English or in Pinyin according to the writing pattern you have just seen. Here it might be helpful to begin the Pinyin-address with this top line: "Pinyin dizhi:", which means "Address in Pinyin:".

There are certain forms of how to begin and end a letter:

Kind of letter	Beginning of the letter	End of the letter
very formal letters to unknown persons (consulate, government, etc.):	Sir, Sirs, Gentlemen, Madam, Mesdames,	I remain, Sir, Your obedient servant, Angus Hudson or: I am, Yours faithfully, Angus Hudson
business letters:	Dear Sir, / Dear Sirs, / Gentlemen, / Dear Madam, / Dear Mesdames,	Yours sincerely, Angus Hudson / Yours faithfully, Angus Hudson /
with name:	Dear Mr / Mrs / Miss Foster	Yours truly, Angus Hudson
letters to acquaintances:	Dear Jim, or just: Jim,	Yours sincerely, Sincerely yours,
letters to friends:	My dear Jim, My dear friend / My old chap / fellow Jim,	Best wishes, Yours ever, Angus
letters to close family members, friends, lovers:	James dear, / Anne, my dearest, / darling, / darling, / sweetheart, My darling Alice, / dearest, / sweetheart,	Love, / With Love, Yours, / Ever yours, / Yours affectionately, / With kind regards yours, / With all my love, / Your loving, Angus

Some Common Rules

Forms of address: Letters to men can be addressed as follows: *Mr Bates*, *Mr T. Bates*, or *Mr Thomas Bates*. If the courtesy title *Esq.* is used we write *T. Bates Esq.* or *Thomas Bates Esq.* The plural form *Messrs* for men is only used with the names of business firms which contain a personal name, such as Goodall & Sons. Mesdames is its female form.

Unmarried women and young girls can be addressed as *Miss*, but it is considered old-fashioned as women do not want to have their private status publically displayed, a political correctness that follows the demand of emancipation. It is also old-fashioned to write for a married woman Mrs Jim Fairbrother (using her husband's name). We better call a female person by her own name and write for example *Mrs Anne Fairbrother* at all times.

Professional titles are used instead of Mr and Mrs, as in *Dr Stephens*, *The Rev. Simon Clifford*. First names are always used with the title Sir and Dame, as in *Sir Richard Paget* or *Dame Margaret Thatcher*.

Very polite terms of address

We use **Sir** or **Madam** most often in places such as shops or hotels where a service is being given.

How can I help you, madam? (in a shop: a shop assistant is addressing a customer)

Names and titles for addressing people in speaking

When we talk to someone directly, we use names and titles:

We use a title (**Mr, Mrs, Ms, Dr, Prof**) and the **family name** in formal situations. We do not usually use the title alone, or the title and first name (although we sometimes use a job title):

Mr Watson, can I ask you a question? Not: ~~Mr David~~, can I ask ...?

Professor O'Brian, there is someone to see you.

Could you ask **Mrs Conrad** to call me when she gets back?

Not: ~~Could you ask Mrs to call me~~ ...?

[in a letter or email to Professor Harry Murray] *Polite form: title + family name: Dear Prof. Murray, ...* Not: ~~Dear Prof. Harry~~

When we are talking to or about people, we use different forms depending on our relationship with them.

We use **first names** only in informal situations:

Hallo, John, how are you?

When we talk about someone, it looks like this:

A: I saw **Simon** earlier today.

B: Did you? I have not seen him for weeks.

We use first name + family name (surname) when we are not sure if the person we are talking to knows who we are talking about:

Do you know Simon Perry?

James Goodfellow had to go to hospital today. I'm not sure why.

When we do not know the person's name, we say:

Sir, can I ask you a question? or **Madam**, can I ask you a question?

Not: ~~Mr~~, can I ask ...? (because it sounds unfriendly or arrogant)

Could you ask **the lady / the gentleman** to call me when she / he gets back?

Not: ~~Could you ask Madam / Sir / Mr / Mrs / Miss / Ms to call me ...?~~

We use **Mr** /'mɪstə(r)/ for men. We do not usually write 'Mister' in full.

We use **Mrs** /'mɪsɪz/ for married women.

Ms /mæz/ does not indicate if the person is married or not. Some women take on their husband's surname and the title *Mrs* when they get married. Some women prefer to keep their surname and use the title *Ms*.

The use of the title **Miss** is becoming less common among younger women as it indicates single status (not married). Most western women do not want to be judged by their status nowadays!

In formal contexts (particularly aristocrats and upper class families), we sometimes use **Master** for boys and **Miss** for girls as in **Master Thomas** or **Miss Alice**. *Master* in this kind of use sounds now old-fashioned.

Job titles

We do not normally call people by the name of their job or profession. There are only few jobs or professions which we can use as terms of address. They are: *doctor* (medical), *driver*, *nurse*, *minister*, *officer*, *waiter*.

Do you think it's serious, **doctor**?

Now, **minister**, can you explain this policy to us?

Excuse me, **waiter**, sorry, could I have some more bread, please?

Teacher however is **not** a title of address! We say: Sir / Madam (when we do not know their name) or Mr Foyle, or Mrs Foyle (when we know their Family name). Not: ~~Teacher, can I ask you a question?~~ **Sir**, she keeps talking all the time. (in a school classroom: a pupil is addressing the teacher)

We use **Dr** for medical doctors and people with a doctorate qualification (PhD). We use a wide range of titles for jobs. Some common ones in business management are:

1. *Chief Executive Officer CEO* /si: i:əv/
2. *Managing Director MD* /em 'di:/
3. *Financial Director FD* /ef di:/
4. *Chief Technical Officer CTO* /si: ti: əv/
5. *Vice-President VP* /vi: 'pi:/ (especially in the USA)
6. *Chair/Chairperson/Chairman* /'tʃeəmən/

We often use abbreviations: *Kapor was founder and **CEO** of Lotus.*

Addressing strangers

English does not have a standard polite way of addressing strangers. For example, it is very difficult to know how to attract the attention of a stranger. *Hello*, *sorry* or *excuse me* are most likely to be used. *Sir!* *Madam!* are not commonly used:

Sorry, you have dropped your scarf.

Excuse me, are you a friend of Simon's?

Parents and grandparents

We use *mother* (usually formal), *mama*, *mum*, *mam*, *mummy* (less formal) *mom* (American English) to talk to a mother, and *father*

(usually formal), *papa, dad, daddy* (less formal) to address a father. For a grandmother (usually formal) we use *grandma, gran, grannie, granny, nana, nan*, and for grandfather (usually formal) we use *granddad, grandpapa, grandpa, granddaddy, granpy, gramps, pops*:
Mama, you are going to be really pleased to hear this.
 I can borrow your car, can't I, **Grannie**?

Terms of endearment

We use terms of endearment for people we are very close to or to whom we want to show affection or friendship. They include: *darling, dear, poppet* (usually to a little child), *love, luvvie, sweetheart, sweetie, honey*. They may combine with names:

Can you lock the car, **darling**?

Peter, **love**, could you take this to the post-box for me?

Mary **dear**, would you get me a drink please?

Some older or senior people use those endearment for everybody:

Good morning **dear / love / sweetie**, what can I do for you?

But it can be considered impolite to use these terms in formal contexts:

~~Where do you come from, love?~~ " (in an interview)

Groups of people

We use *folks, guys, everyone/everybody, children, boys, lads, girls, ladies, gentlemen* to address groups. Some of these are more formal. For example, *ladies and gentlemen* is more formal than *folks* or *guys*. *Guys* is used more and more for groups of both sexes, not just males: OK, **boys**, could you all wait in the main hall, please.

Everybody, could you all hand in your evaluations as you leave, please. Come, on **guys**, come and help!

Cermonious Forms of Address

The forms given below for beginning and ending letters are used nowadays only in the most formal correspondence and it is often acceptable, especially if the correspondence continues beyond an initial ceremonious letter, to adopt a more informal form of address.

The Monarch of a country (Empress, Emperor, Queen, King): Address: *The Queen's* (Emperors, Emperor's, King's) *most excellent Majesty*. Salutation: *Madam*, or *May it please Your Majesty*, Refer to as: *Your Majesty* in the letter at first, then *Madam*. Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Majesty's faithful* (or most humble and obedient) *subject* (or servant),

Prince: Address: *His Royal Highness Prince* (given name), Or, if a duke *His Royal Highness the Duke of* Salutation: *Sir*, Refer to as: *Your Royal Highness*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Royal Highness's most dutiful subject*,

Princess: Address: *Her Royal Highness Princess* (given name), Or, if a duchess *Her Royal Highness the Duchess of* Salutation: *Madam*, Refer to as: *Your Royal Highness*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Royal Highness's most dutiful subject*,

Nobility: There are 5 ranks of hereditary Orders of Peers, here shown in descending order of hierarchy. We refer to as *My Lord* or *My Lady*:

Duke: Address: *His Grace the Duke of*, Salutation: *My Lord Duke*, Refer to as: *Your Grace*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Grace's most dutiful subject*,

Duchess: Address: *Her Grace the Duchess of*, Salutation: *Madam*, Refer to as: *Your Grace*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Grace's most dutiful subject*,

Marquess: Address: *The Most Hon. The Marquess of*, Salutation: *My Lord*, Refer to as: *Your Lordship*, Closing: *Yours faithfully*,

Marchioness (wife of a Marquess) Address: *The Most Hon. The Marchioness of*, Salutation: *Dear Madam*, Closing: *Yours faithfully*,
Earl (Count): Address: *The Rt Hon. The Earl of*, Salutation: *My Lord*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Countess (wife of an Earl): Address: *The Rt Hon. The Countess of*, Salutation: *Dear Madam*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Viscount: Address: *The Rt Hon. The Viscount of*, Salutation: *My Lord*, Refer to as: *Your Lordship*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Lordship's most dutiful subject*,
Viscountess: Address: *The Rt Hon. The Viscountess*, Salutation: *Dear Madam*, Refer to as: *Your Ladyship*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain, Your Ladyship's most dutiful subject*,
Baron: Address: *The Rt Hon. The Lord ...*, Salutation: *My Lord*, Refer to as: *Your Lordship*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Baroness: Address: *The Rt Hon. The Lady ...*, Salutation: *Dear Madam*, or *My Lady*, Refer to as: *Your Ladyship*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,

Titles of honour. We refer as to Sir or Madam:

Baronet: Address: *Sir (First name and surname), Bt*, Salutation: *Dear Sir*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Baronet's Wife: Address: *Lady (Surname only)*, Salutation: *Dear Madam*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Knight: Address: *Sir (First name and surname)*, followed with appropriate letters relevant to Order (if known). Salutation: *Dear Sir*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Knight's Wife: Address: *Lady (Surname only)*, Salutation: *Dear Madam*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,

Dignitaries - Civilian or Federal

US-President: Address: *The President of the United States*, Salutation: *Dear Mr. / Madam President*, Closing: *Respectfully*,
Prime Minister: Address: *The Rt Hon. (First name and surname), Prime Minister of (Country)*, Salutation: *Dear Prime Minister*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
President of a Republic: Address: *His / Her Excellency (First name and surname), President of the Republic of.....*, Salutation: *Excellency*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Ambassador: Address: *His / Her Excellency (First name and surname), Ambassador of (Country)* Salutation: *Dear Ambassador*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Cabinet Minister, Senator, Judge etc. Address: *The Honourable (First name and surname), Minister of (Name of Department)* Salutation: *Dear Minister* (Senator, Judge), Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Member of Parliament: Address: according to rank or *Mr / Mrs (First name and surname), Sir* or *Madam*, or *Dear Mr* or *Mrs (and surname)*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,
Armed Forces (General, Admiral, Major, Colonel, Captain etc.): Address: *General (or other rank, then First and Surname)*, Salutation: *Dear General*, Closing: *Yours sincerely*,

Religious Dignitaries

The Pope: Address: *His Holiness (Name & Roman Numeral)*, Salutation: *Your Holiness*, Closing: *I have the honour to remain Your Holiness's obedient servant*,

Cardinal: Address: *His Eminence (First and Last Name)*, Salutation: *Your Eminence* or *Dear Cardinal (Surname)*, Closing: *Yours very sincerely,*

Archbishop and Bishop: Address: *The Most Reverend (First and Last Name), Archbishop (or Bishop) of (Name of Diocese)*, Salutation: *Dear Archbishop (Surname)*, Closing: *Yours very sincerely,*

Abbot and Abbess: Address: *The Very Reverend (First and Last Name), Abbot(ess) of*, Salutation: *Right Reverend Father (Mother)* or *Dear Abbot(ess) (Surname)*, Closing: *Yours sincerely,*

Monk and Nun: Address: *Reverend Brother or Mother (First and Last Name)*, Salutation: *Dear Reverend Brother or Mother*, Closing: *Yours sincerely,*

Priest, Vicar, Pastor: Address: *The Reverend (First and Last Name)*, Salutation: *Dear Father*, (or *Dear Rabbi* when Jewish; or *Dear Excellency* or *Sir* when Muslim or other religion) Closing: *Yours sincerely,*

Writing A Letter Or E-Mail

You may find it difficult to find a begin a letter. Here some ideas. First, you must consider these two points: A.) Is the letter you want to write an answer to an advertisement or another letter? B.) Is the letter you intend to write a letter written entirely on your own initiative?

The easiest thing might be to answer another letter or to react to any kind of writing. Here are some examples how you could begin:

Thank you for your letter of 2nd August 2014.

Thank you for the recommendation you have sent to me recently.

Thank you for your enquiry of 24th July.

Thank you for your order No. 3582047 of 21st of October.

Thank you for your e-mail of 3rd May 2014, in which you enquired about our service fees.

In reply to your e-mail of 15th November 2014, we can inform you that your books have arrived this morning.

I should like to refer to your advertisement which I have found in the weekend edition of The Daily Mirror of Saturday the 30th of August.

It is surely more difficult to find a suitable beginning for a letter which you write on your own initiative. Some common phrases to begin with:

I should like to apply for the post of foreign language correspondent.

Please allow me to lead your attention to the following

I am writing to you to ask whether you would consider

I am writing to you to ask whether you could give me

I am writing to enquire about any available secretary post in your firm.

I am writing to enquire whether you know of any accountant post

I wonder if you would be so kind and let me know ...

I should be glad if you could tell me whether you have any double room available from April 15th to May 2nd, and what your term are

I have a very great favour to ask of you. This is the situation:

Example Of A Professional Job Application Letter:

Zhang Dejun

Ouya Building No. 4, Entrance 6, 3rd Floor
4682, Renmin Dajie,
ANYANG CITY
Hunan Province 420002
People's Republic of China
zhang@yahoo.com
Telephone Number: 0086 13442288

3 September 2014

Rover Automobiles Co. Ltd.

133, Brighton Road
SALISBURY
Wiltshire WS1 4FK
United Kingdom

Re: **Application for the post of Admissions Clerk**

Dear Sirs,

I write this letter with respect to the notice posted online on your official website, www.rover-retailers.co.uk, regarding the vacant and available post of Admissions Clerk.

I am an efficient, enthusiastic and an honest person with good analysing and organisational skills. I have sound experience in the requirements needed by you in your prospective employees, with a four year experience to offer. You can consider me as your chosen and suitable candidate with confidence. Please have a look at my documents attached herewith. I thank you very much for your consideration.

Sincerely Yours,

张德军

Zhang Dejun.

Enclosures:

Resume
Letter of Recommendation
Relieve Letter
Copies of Identity Proof
Copies of Address Proof
Educational Certificates

Resume Writing – Basic Pattern And Contents:

Given Name, Family Name
House Number, Street Name, Apt. No.
CITY,
Shire (State, Province), Postcode
Country
Complete Telephone Number
E-mail Address

Employment Objective: Tell the employer the specific position you are interested in.

Summary of Qualifications: A brief summary of your best selling points

Work History: Company Name and Address

Dates of employment:: Your Job Title

Describe your duties, skills, responsibilities:

State your major accomplishments, achievements, skill area.

Start each with an action verb; try to keep each to 1-2 lines.

Use an asterisk (*), dash (-), or bullet (•) to draw attention to each statement.

Give specific results to show your qualifications.

List your most important accomplishments first.

(Use the above format for additional employers. Start with your most recent job and work backward. Give the most space to more recent and more relevant work.)

Education:

School City, Address Degree

Dates attended (optional)

Military (Optional)

Branch, rank

Type of discharge (optional)

Dates served (optional)

Special Skills and Abilities

Interests, hobbies, foreign languages, clubs, etc.

References (Available upon request).

Date, Your Name and *Signature*

Resume Example:

Personal Details:

Family name: Farrell
Given name: George
Date and Place of Birth: 21 May 1980, London
Gender: Male
Citizenship: United Kingdom
Membership: Royal British Legion
Driving Licence: United Kingdom, (clean)

Employment Objective:

Seeking a position as a retail sales clerk.

Summary of Qualifications:

Five years successful experience in direct retail sales. Excellent communication skills; sincere commitment to providing quality customer service.

Work History:

*Waitrose, Guildford, 333 London Road, 2011-present
as Sales Associate*

Assisted customers with item selection, operated computerised cash register, balanced cash register daily, monitored inventory and stocked shelves.

- Set new monthly sales record, surpassing all sales associates for any given month in company history.
- Accurately balanced cash register daily. Never was short.
- Maintained detailed paperwork for inventory control. Operated automated inventory equipment.
- Handled customer problems with patience and sensitivity.
- Promoted to sales associate lead worker after one year. Trained new associates.

*Williams Car Supplies Ltd., Haslemere, 2003-2011
as Sales Clerk*

Operated computerised cash register and automated scanning equipment for the local branch of a large department store chain.

Worked cash register and scanning equipment in all departments.
Conducted inventories. Reconciled counts against inventory control systems.
Entered data into computer for special orders.
Received customer service and inventory control training.
Trained two new sales clerks.

Military

Royal British Armed Forces, Royal Logistic Corps, 1st Division, 7th Regiment
1999-2003, Honourable Discharge

Education

Guildford Grammar School, University of Surrey, BA 2003 graduate

Special Skills and Abilities

Able to speak, read and write German

Computer Skills:

WindowsXP and 7, Linux, MS-Office, Systran, Adobe Photoshop, Corel Draw


References:

Available upon request.

Guildford, 23rd October 2014

George Farrell

George Farrell

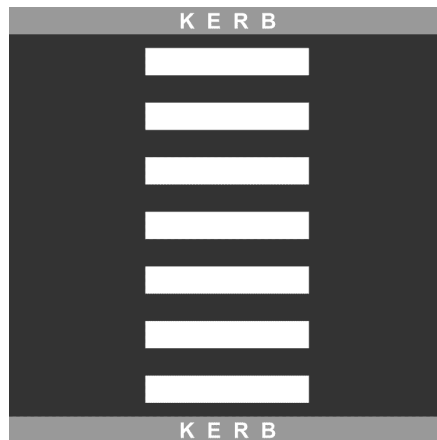
Sender's Zone Full name and address of the sender	40mm 
Recipient's Zone Full name of the recipient Company name Unit number, block or building name House number, Street name District / Housing area TOWN NAME Shire (or State, or Province) Postcode Country	

You have to write the information of the sender and the recipient on an envelope in this stanardised fashion, because, nowadays, envelopes are read and assorted by machines.

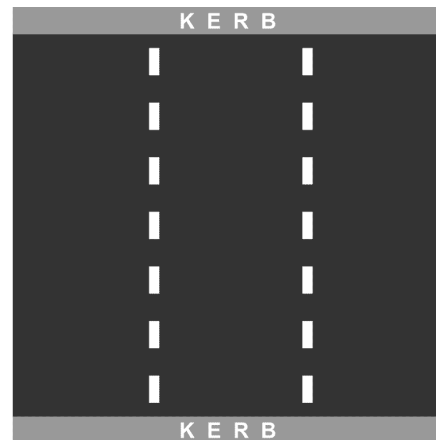
TRAFFIC EDUCATION

Although traffic education is important and saves lives. Safety on China's roads needs improvement as drivers seem to be allowed to do what ever they want. There seem to be no discipline and no consideration for the weaker users of roads. Just one typical example: When a driver of a vehicle in any western country is approaching a zebra crossing without slowing down and stopping, or is even chasing pedestrians off the zebra crossing, the driver will be followed by the police and he will lose his driving licence instantly without warning!

We have two kinds of crossing areas for pedestrians. One is the **zebra crossing** on which the pedestrians have the "right of way" and **NOT** the drivers of vehicles! The other one is the **pelican crossing** with **traffic lights**. By pushing a traffic light button, pedestrians can stop oncoming traffic and get a green signal to cross the road.



A zebra crossing



A pelican crossing

The Highway Code and The Green Cross Code

In the 1960s and 1970s we had around 8,000 people killed on our roads in the United Kingdom each single year. The greatest part were children and teenagers. Authorities in Europe and America began a ruthless double campaign to fight reckless behaviour on streets and roads. One part of the campaign was issuing information on road safety and discipline. **The Highway Code** for drivers of vehicles and **The Green Cross Code** for road users on foot are the most important booklets that became a great success in the United Kingdom. Other countries followed suit with their campaigns.

The other half of the campaign contained a catalogue of harsh punishments against all those road users who inconsiderately put other people at risk. The police was ordered to act swiftly to bring traffic rule offenders to justice and out of the traffic. Heavy fines and the instant termination of driving licences for at least one, two or even three years became common place. Result: The horrible figure of 8,000 deaths has dropped to less than 2,000.

The Green Cross Code. The advice given below on crossing the road is **for all pedestrians in mainland China**. Children should be taught the Code and should not be allowed out alone until they can understand and use it properly. The age when they can do this is different for each child. Many children cannot judge how fast vehicles are going or how far away they are. Children learn by example, so parents and carers should always use the Code in full when out with

their children. They are responsible for deciding at what age children can use it safely by themselves.

General guidance

1. Pavements (including any path along the side of a road) should be used if provided. Where possible, avoid being next to the kerb with your back to the traffic. If you have to step into the road, look both ways first. Always show due care and consideration for others.

2. If there is no pavement, keep to the **left-hand side** of the road so that you can see oncoming traffic. You should take extra care and

- be prepared to walk in single file, especially on narrow roads or in poor light
- keep close to the side of the road.

It may be safer to cross the road well before a sharp left-hand bend so that oncoming traffic has a better chance of seeing you. Cross back after the bend.

3. Help other road users to see you. Wear or carry something light-coloured, bright or fluorescent in poor daylight conditions. When it is dark, use reflective material, which can be seen by drivers using headlights up to three times as far away as non-reflective materials.

4. Young children should not be out alone on the pavement or road. When taking children out, keep between them and the traffic and hold their hands firmly.

5. Organised walks. Large groups of people walking together should use a pavement if available; if one is not, they should keep to the left. Look-outs should be positioned at the front and back of the group, and they should wear fluorescent clothes in daylight and reflective clothes

in the dark. At night, the look-out in front should show a white light and the one at the back a red light. People on the outside of large groups should also carry lights and wear reflective clothing.

6. Motorways (Speedways, Highways). Pedestrians **MUST NOT** be on motorways or slip roads except in an emergency.

The Basic Crossing Rules

Rule A: First find a safe place to cross and where there is space to reach the pavement on the other side. Where there is a crossing nearby, use it. It is safer to cross using a subway, a footbridge, an island, a zebra, pelican, toucan or puffin crossing, or where there is a crossing point controlled by a police officer, a school crossing patrol or a traffic warden. Otherwise choose a place where you can see clearly in all directions. Avoid crossing between parked cars, on a blind bend, or close to the brow of a hill. Use a place where drivers and riders can see you clearly. Do not cross the road diagonally.

Rule B: Stop just before you get to the kerb, where you can see if anything is coming. Do not get too close to the traffic. If there's no pavement, keep back from the edge of the road but make sure you can still see approaching traffic.

Rule C: Look all around for traffic and listen. Traffic could come from any direction. Listen as well, because you can sometimes hear traffic before you see it.

Rule D: If traffic is coming, let it pass. Look all around again and listen. Do not cross until there is a safe gap in the traffic and you are certain that there is plenty of time. Remember, even if traffic is a long way off, it may be approaching very quickly.

Rule E: When it is safe, go straight across the road – do not run.

Keep looking and listening for traffic while you cross, in case there is any traffic you did not see, or in case other traffic appears suddenly. Look out for cyclists and motorcyclists travelling between lanes of traffic. **Do not walk diagonally** across the road.

At a junction. When crossing the road, look out for traffic turning into the road, especially from behind you.

Pedestrian Safety Barriers. Where there are barriers, cross the road only at the gaps provided for pedestrians. Do not climb over the barriers or walk between them and the road.

One-way streets. Check which way the traffic is moving. Do not cross until it is safe to do so without stopping. Bus and cycle lanes may operate in the opposite direction to the rest of the traffic.

Bus and cycle lanes. Take care when crossing these lanes as traffic may be moving faster than in the other lanes, or against the flow of traffic.

Parked vehicles. Never cross the road in front of, or behind, any vehicle with its engine running, especially a large vehicle, as the driver may not be able to see you.

Reversing vehicles. Never cross behind a vehicle which is reversing, showing white reversing lights or sounding a warning.

Moving vehicles. You **MUST NOT** get onto or hold onto a moving vehicle.

At night. Wear something **reflective** or **bright** to make it easier for others to see you. If there is no pedestrian crossing nearby, cross the road near a street light so that traffic can see you more easily.

The Crossing Rules in Short

The Green Cross Code itself is a short step-by-step procedure designed to enable pedestrians to cross streets safely. The basic tenets ("Stop Look Listen Live".) read as follows:

1. **Think!** Find the safest place to cross, then stop.
2. **Stop!** Stand on the pavement near the kerb.
3. **Use your eyes and ears!** Look all around for traffic, and listen.
4. **Wait until it's safe to cross!** If traffic is coming, let it pass.
5. **Look and listen!** When it's safe, walk straight across the road.
6. **Arrive alive!** Keep looking and listening

Kerb Drill

The Kerb Drill is a procedure for pedestrians to cross streets safely. The drill can easily be learnt in the classroom or in the school yard. The Kerb Drill encourages pedestrians to look before they cross:

At the kerb, halt! Eyes left,

Eyes right,

Eyes left again.

If the road is clear, Quick march—walk straight across.

When there is **a lane with traffic from the other direction**, pedestrians have to repeat this procedure the other way round:

At the middle of the road (or the island), halt! Eyes right,

Eyes left,

Eyes right again.

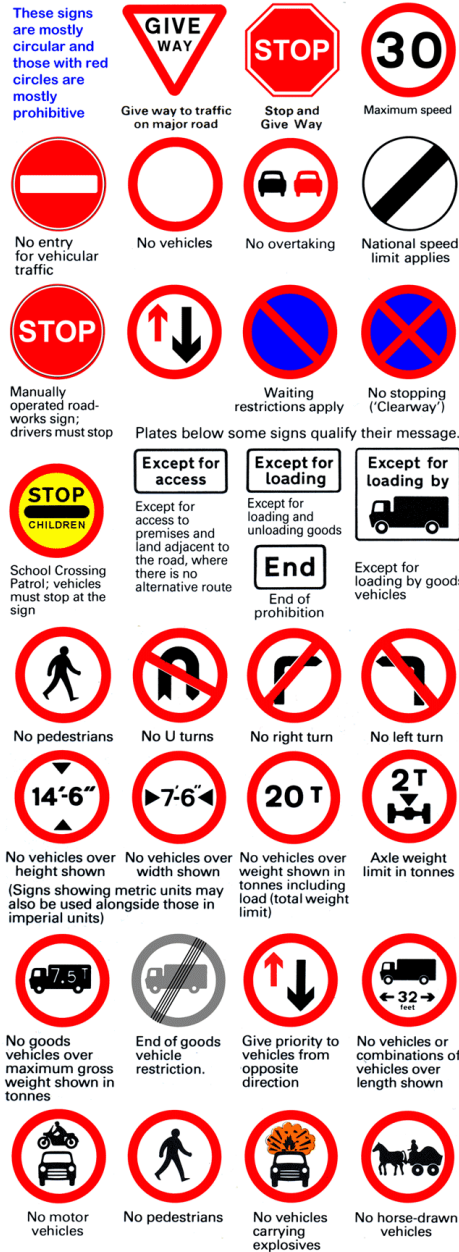
If the road is clear, Quick march—walk straight across.

I advise schools to paint a full-scale model road with a zebra crossing and an island in their school yard to practise this kerb drill.

INTERNATIONAL TRAFFIC SIGNS

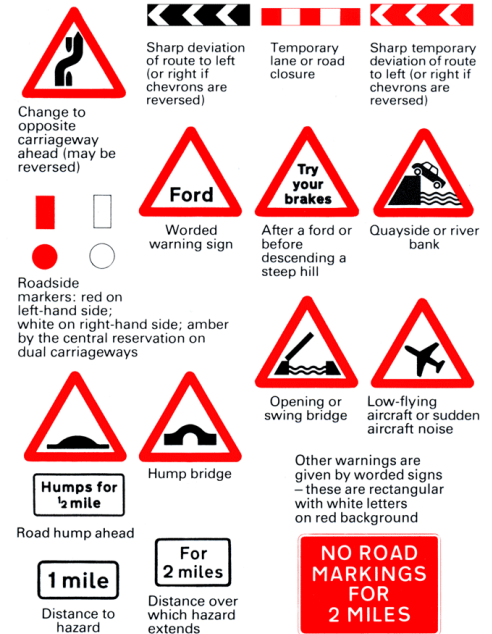
Prohibitory Signs

These signs are mostly circular and those with red circles are mostly prohibitive



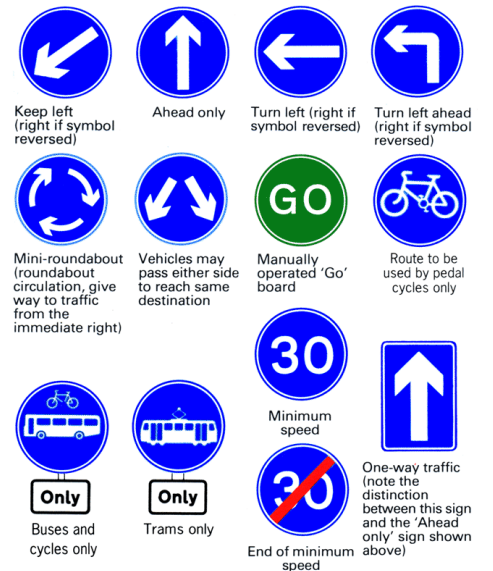
Warning Signs

Mostly triangular



Mandatory Signs

Signs with blue circles but no red border mostly give positive instruction.



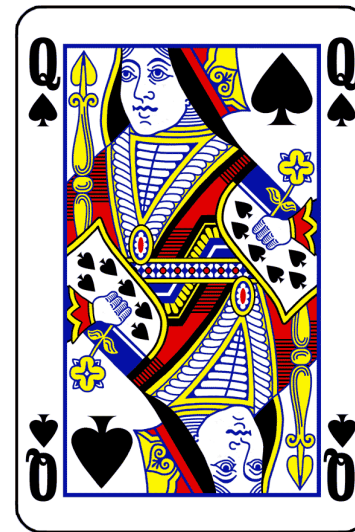
LEARNING TO SPEAK ENGLISH BY SOCIALISING

Playing cards are believed to have been invented in Ancient China. The oldest cards date back to the Tang Dynasty (618–907). Those ancient “money cards” have four “suits” with “court cards” as well as “numeral cards” representing money. A journey of success begun: The playing cards went soon to India, Arabia and Turkey. Traders brought them to Europe where they became popular among German people in the 11th century. Probably in Germany, the court cards seem to have received their medieval design with “Knaves, Queens and Kings”. In France the cards got the suits in the style we know today: diamonds representing jewelry, clubs representing 2 crossed clubs, hearts representing love, and spades representing the tip of spears (in Roman called “spada”). These German-French Playing cards arrived England in about 1220 where the court cards were called “Knave, Queen, King”. During the 17th and 19th century the court cards developed the modern design. They received letters in their corners. It was confusing to print K for the Knave because the K was reserved for the King already. So the producers borrowed the name “Jack” from a game and the Knave became Jack. The new settlers brought these cards to America where German settlers added two Jokers. Finally, after a thousand years’ journey, British, German and American traders introduced these Anglo-American playing cards to China in the 19th century. They have returned home. These are the playing cards we use today.

Why did I tell you this (hi)story? Your students might find this little story as an introduction or warm up quite interesting.

Chinese students are rather reserved and shy. You can make them speak out by using playing cards in some lessons. While playing, the students must speak! The teacher gives them the needed vocabulary. Playing cards bear in their corners the numbers from 2 to 10 and these signs. Writing them on the blackboard might help the students to see and remember while playing:

SUITS		VALUES	
	<i>Name:</i>		<i>Name:</i>
♦	Diamonds	J	Jack (or Knave)
♣	Clubs	Q	Queen
♥	Hearts	K	King
♠	Spades	A	Ace
	JOKER	2	Two (or Deuce)



In English, the name of the playing card is made always in the same manner: the corner first, then “of”, the middle last: *Two (Deuce) of Hearts, King of Spades, Ace of Clubs* and so on. Although most playing card packs have 2 different Jokers, in most western games they are treated alike. Chinese players use to call the colourless Joker “little Joker” and the coloured one “big Joker”. Practice: Ask the students to identify the shown card. They must say the name. You can continue this during an entire game.

A Little Card Game Ideal For Lessons: Mao Mao

Mao Mao or Mau Mau is a card game for 2 or more players that is popular in the Netherlands, Germany, Brazil, the United States and other countries. For more than 5 **players**, 2 **packs of cards** may be used. Mau Mau is played with a regular pack of 54 playing cards.

In western countries we deal and play in **clockwise direction**. Goal: Whoever **gets rid of** their cards first **wins the game**.

Rules Of Mao Mao

Find out who **deals the cards** first. Draw cards. The highest card belongs to the first **dealer**. The dealer **shuffles the cards**. The players are dealt each a **hand of cards** (usually 7). The rest are **placed face down** as the **drawing stack** or **pile of cards**. At the beginning of the game the dealer **reveals** the topmost card of **the pile**, then the players each **get a turn** to play cards.

One can play a card if it **matches** (corresponds) to **the suit** or **value** of the **open card**. Example: on a 10 of spades, only other spades can be played or other 10s. If a player is not able to, they draw one card from the stack. If he can play this card, he may do so, otherwise he **keeps the drawn card** and **passes his turn**. If the drawing stack is empty, the playing stack (except for the **topmost card**) is shuffled and **turned over** to **serve as** new drawing stack.

There are some cards which can perform a particular task. All 8s and 7s are penalty cards, all Jacks and Jokers are wishing cards: Playing an 8 (by saying "**it is not your turn!**") means that the next player has to pass his turn to the player after him. Playing a 7 (by saying "**take two**

cards!") forces the next player to take 2 cards from the drawing stack. Playing a Jack or Joker enables the player to force the next player to play a different suit by saying "**I want Hearts** (or Diamonds, Spades, Clubs) **!**" The next player has to play any card that belongs to the suit of Hearts. One wins the game by getting rid of all of their cards first. Usually, the winner will have to say "Mao Mao".

Additional penalty card:

In order to make the game interesting, later on you can choose all nines in order to change the playing direction to anti-clockwise.

Conversation:

Can you shuffle cards?

Please deal in a clockwise direction!

Never deal for yourself first, you always last!

Please shuffle the cards!

Please deal the cards!

How many cards may I deal?

Each player gets 7 cards!

Open the pile / stack please!

It is your turn!

Take two cards!

Your card does not match!

Your 3 of Clubs does not match the 4 of Spades!

I want Spades!

It is not your turn!

I win! Mao Mao!

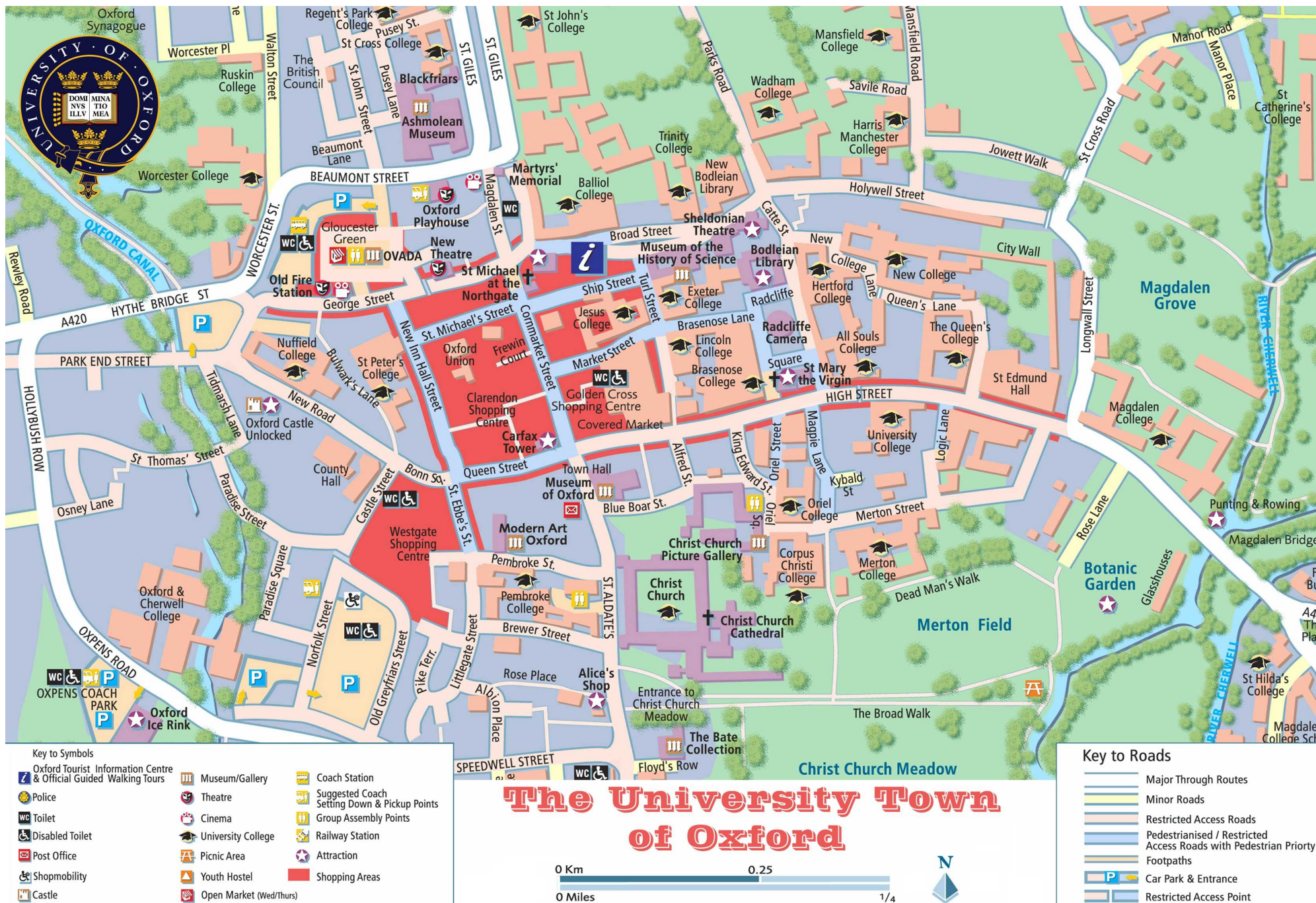
The Jewellery of the English Tongue

that is any Word or Phrase
with which we adorn, decorate
or embroider our Language

Basic English Word List - Alphabetic, 850 Words, Level 1,
Basic English Word List - Alphabetic, 650 Words, Level 2,
Basic English Compound Words,
Basic English, Common Words In Categories,
Basic English, International Words In Categories.

Antonyms, Synonyms, Homonyms, Abbreviations And Acronyms,
Common Sounds Made By Humans, Animals, Devices Or Other Things,
Sound Interjections, Exclamations Of Surprise, Admiration, And Disappointment,
Common Expressions, Colloquial Speech And Slang, Singing English Songs, Military Drill Commands,
Names Of Countries, Their Nouns And Adjectives, The Muddle Chest Of Confusing Phrases And Words,

Phrasal Verbs, Phrases And Idioms, Proverbs And Sayings,
Given Names, Family Names; Bibliography.



Dealing with a map is an important skill that has to be learnt at school. The vocabulary lesson should contain all here shown Nouns, as well as phrases like “turn right / left, go straight / back, go (half) round the park”, etc.

Basic English Word List – Alphabetic, 850 Words, Level 1

A: a, able, about, account, acid, across, act, addition, adjustment, advertisement, after, again, against, agreement, air, all, almost, among, amount, amusement, and, angle, angry, animal, answer, ant, any, apparatus, apple, approval, arch, argument, arm, army, art, as, at, attack, attempt, attention, attraction, authority, automatic, awake .

B: baby, back, bad, bag, balance, ball, band, base, basin, basket, bath, be, beautiful, because, bed, bee, before, behavior, belief, bell, bent, berry, between, bird, birth, bit, bite, bitter, black, blade, blood, blow, blue, board, boat, body, boiling, bone, book, boot, bottle, box, boy, brain, brake, branch, brass, bread, breath, brick, bridge, bright, broken, brother, brown, brush, bucket, building, bulb, burn, burst, business, but, butter, button, by .

C: cake, camera, canvas, card, care, carriage, cart, cat, cause, certain, chain, chalk, chance, change, cheap, cheese, chemical, chest, chief, chin, church, circle, clean, clear, clock, cloth, cloud, coal, coat, cold, collar, color, comb, come, comfort, committee, common, company, comparison, complete, competition, complex, condition, connexion, conscious, control, cook, copper, copy, cord, cork, cotton, cough, country, cover, cow, crack, credit, crime, cruel, crush, cry, cup, current, curtain, curve, cushion, cut .

D: damage, danger, dark, daughter, day, dead, dear, death, debt, decision, deep, degree, delicate, dependent, design, desire, destruction, detail, development, different, digestion, direction, dirty, discovery, discussion, disease, disgust, distance, distribution, division, do, dog, door, doubt, down, drain, drawer, dress, drink, driving, drop, dry, dust .

E: ear, early, earth, east, edge, education, effect, egg, elastic, electric, end, engine, enough, equal, error, even, event, ever, every, example, exchange, existence, expansion, experience, expert, eye .

F: face, fact, fall, false, family, far, farm, fat, father, fear, feather, feeble, feeling, female, fertile, fiction, field, fight, finger, fire, first, fish, fixed, flag, flame, flat, flight, floor, flower, fly, fold, food, foolish, foot, for, force, fork, form, forward, fowl, frame, free, frequent, friend, from, front, fruit, full, future .

G: garden, general, get, girl, give, glass, glove, go, goat, gold, good, government, grain, grass, great, green, grey/gray, grip, group, growth, guide, gun .

H: hair, hammer, hand, hanging, happy, harbor, hard, harmony, hat, hate, have, he, head, healthy, hearing, heart, heat, help, here, high, history, hole, hollow, hook, hope, horn, horse, hospital, hour, house, how, humor .

I: I, ice, idea, if, ill, important, impulse, in, increase, industry, ink, insect, instrument, insurance, interest, invention, iron, island .

J: jelly, jewel, join, journey, judge, jump .

K: keep, kettle, key, kick, kind, kiss, knee, knife, knot, knowledge .

L: land, language, last, late, laugh, law, lead, leaf, learning, leather, left, leg, let, letter, level, library, lift, light, like, limit, line, linen, lip, liquid, list, little (less ,least), living, lock, long, loose, loss, loud, love, low .

M: machine, make, male, man, manager, map, mark, market, married, match, material, mass, may, meal, measure, meat, medical, meeting, memory, metal, middle, military, milk, mind, mine, minute, mist, mixed, money, monkey, month, moon, morning, mother, motion, mountain, mouth, move, much (more, most), muscle, music .

N: nail, name, narrow, nation, natural, near, necessary, neck, need, needle, nerve, net, new, news, night, no, noise, normal, north, nose, not, note, now, number, nut .

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

O: observation, of, off, offer, office, oil, old, on, only, open, operation, opinion, opposite, or, orange, order, organization, ornament, other, out, oven, over, owner.

P: page, pain, paint, paper, parallel, parcel, part, past, paste, payment, peace, pen, pencil, person, physical, picture, pig, pin, pipe, place, plane, plant, plate, play, please, pleasure, plough/plow, pocket, point, poison, polish, political, poor, porter, position, possible, pot, potato, powder, power, present, price, print, prison, private, probable, process, produce, profit, property, prose, protest, public, pull, pump, punishment, purpose, push, put .

Q: quality, question, quick, quiet, quite .

R: rail, rain, range, rat, rate, ray, reaction, red, reading, ready, reason, receipt, record, regret, regular, relation, religion, representative, request, respect, responsible, rest, reward, rhythm, rice, right, ring, river, road, rod, roll, roof, room, root, rough, round, rub, rule, run .

S: sad, safe, sail, salt, same, sand, say, scale, school, science, scissors, screw, sea, seat, second, secret, secretary, see, seed, selection, self, send, seem, sense, separate, serious, servant, sex, shade, shake, shame, sharp, sheep, shelf, ship, shirt, shock, shoe, short, shut, side, sign, silk, silver, simple, sister, size, skin, skirt, sky, sleep, slip, slope, slow, small, smash, smell, smile, smoke, smooth, snake, sneeze, snow, so, soap, society, sock, soft, solid, some, son, song, sort, sound, south, soup, space, spade, special, sponge, spoon, spring, square, stamp, stage, star, start, statement, station, steam, stem, steel, step, stick, sticky, still, stitch, stocking, stomach, stone, stop, store, story, strange, street, stretch, stiff, straight, strong, structure, substance, sugar, suggestion, summer, support, surprise, such, sudden, sun, sweet, swim, system .

T: table, tail, take, talk, tall, taste, tax, teaching, tendency, test, than, that, the, then, theory, there, thick, thin, thing, this, though, thought, thread,

throat, through, thumb, thunder, ticket, tight, till, time, tin, tired, to, toe, together, tomorrow, tongue, tooth, top, touch, town, trade, train, transport, tray, tree, trick, trouble, trousers, true, turn, twist .

U: umbrella, under, unit, up, use .

V: value, verse, very, vessel, view, violent, voice .

W: waiting, walk, wall, war, warm, wash, waste, watch, water, wave, wax, way, weather, week, weight, well, west, wet, wheel, when, where, while, whip, whistle, white, who, why, wide, will, wind, window, wine, wing, winter, wire, wise, with, woman, wood, wool, word, work, worm, wound, writing, wrong .

X, Y, Z: year, yellow, yes, yesterday, you, young .

Basic English Word List – Alphabetic, 650 Words, Level 2

The next step on the way to Standard English is to reach the 1,500 Word Level. These 650 words come after the Basic 850 words and represent what any learner should know. They consist of international words, plus the general words for trade, economics and science.

A: absence, absorption, acceleration, acceptance, accessory, accident, active, address, adjacent, adventure, advice, age, agent, agency, ago, allowance, along, also, alternative, always, ambition, amplitude, anchor, ankle, appendage, application, approximation, arbitration, arbitrary, arc, area, arrangement, ash, asset, assistant, average, awkward, axis.

B: balcony, bale, bankrupt, bark, barrel, beak, beaker, beard, beat, behind, belt, bet, bill, birefringence, blame, blanket, both, bottom, brave, break, breakfast, breast, broker, bubble, bud, budget, buoyancy, bunch, burial, busy.

C: calculation, call, capacity, capital, carpet, cartilage, case, cast, cave, cavity, cell, ceremony, certificate, chair, character, charge, child, chimney, china, choice, circulation, circuit, circumference, civilization, clay, claim, claw, cleavage, clever, client, climber, clip, code, coil, collision, collection, column, combination, combine, communications, complaint, component, compound, concept, concrete, conductor, congruent, conservation, consignment, constant, consumer, continuous, contour, convenient, conversion, cool, corner, correlation, corrosion, cost, court, creeper, crop, cross, cunning, cusp, customs .

D: damping, date, debit, deck, decrease, defect, deficiency, deflation, degenerate, delivery, demand, denominator, department, desert, density, deposit, determining, dew, diameter, difference, difficulty, drift, dike, dilution, dinner, dip, direct, disappearance, discharge, discount, disgrace, dislike, dissipation, disturbance, ditch, dive, divisor, divorce, doll, domesticating, dreadful, dream, duct, dull, duty.

E: each, easy, economy, efficiency, effort, either, elimination, employer, empty, enemy, envelope, environment, envy, equation, erosion, eruption, evaporation, evening, exact, excitement, experiment, exercise, explanation, explosion, export, expression, extinction, eyebrow, eyelash .

F: factor, failure, fair, famous, fan, fastening, fatigue, fault, ferment, fertilising, fever, fiber, figure, fin, financial, flash, flask, flesh, flood, flour, focus, forecast, forehead, foreign, forgiveness, fraction, fracture, fresh, friction, flint, flood, flow, foliation, frost, frozen, fume, funnel, funny, fur, furnace, furniture, fusion .

G: gate, generation, germ, germinating, gill, glacier, gland, god, grand, grateful, grating, gravel, grease, grief, grocery, groove, gross, ground, guard, guarantee, guess, gum .

H: habit, handkerchief, handle, heavy, hedge, hill, hinge, hire, hold, holiday, home, honest, honey, hoof, host, human, hunt, hurry, hurt,

husband.

I: igneous, image, imagination, import, impurity, inclusion, index, individual, inflation, infinity, inheritance, innocent, institution, insulator, integer, intelligent, intercept, interpretation, intersection, intrusion, investigation, investment, inverse, invitation.

J: jam, jaw, jealous, jerk, joint, jug, juice, jury, justice .

K: kennel, kidney, kitchen, knock.

L: lace, lag, lake, lamb, lamp, large, latitude, lawyer, layer, lazy, lecture, legal, length, lens, lesson, lever, liability, license, lid, life, lime, limestone, link, liver, load, local, load, loan, locus, loop, longitude, luck, lump, lunch, lung .

M: magic, magnitude, manner, many, marble, margin, marriage, mast, mattress, mature mean, meaning, medicine, medium, melt, member, mess, message, metabolism, mill, mineral, mixture, model, modern, modest, momentum, monopoly, mood, moral, moustache, mud, multiple, multiplication, murder.

N: nasty, nature, navy, neat, neglect, neighbor, nest, next, nice, node, nostril, nucleus, numerator, nurse .

O: obedient, oblique, officer, orchestra, ore, organ, origin, outcrop, outlier, overlap, oval, own, oxidation .

P: packing, pad, pair, pan, paragraph, parent, particle, partner, party, passage, path, patience, pedal, pendulum, pension, people, perfect, petal, piston, plain, plan, plaster, plug, poetry, pollen, pool, population, porcelain, practice, praise, prayer, pressure, prick, priest, prime, probability, product, progress, projectile, projection, promise, proof, proud, pulley, pupil, purchase, pure .

Q: quantity, quotient.

R: race, radiation, ratio, reagent, real, receiver, reciprocal, rectangle, recurring, reference, reflux, reinforcement, relative, remark, remedy, rent, repair, reproduction, repulsion, resistance, residue, resolution, result, retail, revenge, reversible, rich, rigidity, rise, rival, rock, rot, rotation, rude, rust .

S: sac, sale, sample, satisfaction, saturated, saucer, saving, scale, scarp, schist, scratch, screen, seal, search, security, secretion, section, sedimentary, selfish, sensitivity, sentence, sepal, service, set, shadow, shale, share, shave, shear, sheet, shell, shore, shoulder, show, sight, sill, similarity, since, skull, slate, sleeve, slide, social, soil, soldier, solution, solvent, sorry, spark, specialisation, specimen, speculation, spirit, spit, splash, spot, stable, stain, stair, stalk, stamen, statistics, steady, stimulus, storm, strain, straw, stream, strength, stress, strike, string, study, subject, substitution, subtraction, success, successive, sucker, sum, supply, surface, surgeon, suspension, suspicious, swelling, swing, switch, sympathetic .

T: tailor, tame, tap, tear, tent, term, texture, thickness, thief, thimble, thorax, threat, thrust, tide, tie, tissue, tongs, too, total, towel, tower, traffic, tragedy, transmission, transparent, trap, travel, treatment, triangle, truck, tube, tune, tunnel, twin, typist .

U: ugly, unconformity, understanding, universe, unknown .

V: valency, valley, valve, vapor, variable, vascular, vegetable, velocity, vestigial, victim, victory, volume, vortex, vote .

W: weak, wedge, welcome, whether, wholesale, widow, wife, wild, world, wreck, wrist .

X, Y, Z: yawn.

Basic English Compound Words

These are useful compound words. This list is not intended to be all-inclusive. Derivative forms are not included (-ed, -er, -ing, -ly, plural, and passive. Nor are prefixes of measures; centi-, kilo-, etc.; or of un- . Often there is no rule for the writing of compound words. You might find rather different writing styles: looking-glass or looking glass, blacklead or black lead, bloodvessel, blood-vessel, or blood vessel. Every combination will be found: weekend, month end, year-end.

A: aftereffect, afterthought, aircushion, airmail, airman, airplane, airport, airtight, another, anybody, anyhow, anyone, anyplace, anything, anytime, anyway, anywhere, armhole, artwork, away.

B: backbone, backside, backspace, backwater, backwoods, bagpipes, basketwork, bathroom, bedroom, beeswax, bird's-eye, birthplace, birthrate, birthright, blackberry, blackbird, blackboard, blacklead, blackout, bloodvessel, blood-vessel, bluebell, bookkeeper, bookmark, bookrest, bookshelf, bookworm, brakeman, breath-taking, brickwork, brother-in-law, brushwood, businessman, buttercup, buttermilk, buttonhole, button-hook, bygone

C: camaraman, cardboard, carefree, caretaker, clockwork, commonsense, copyright, countryside, cupboard.

D: doorway, downfall, download, drainpipe.

E: earthwork, earthworm, evergreen, everybody, everyday, everyone, everything, everywhere, eyeball,

F: farmhouse, father-in-law, fatherland, fingerprint, firearm, fireboat, fire-engine, fire-fly, fireman, fireplace, fireworks, first-rate, football, footlight, footman, footnote, footprint, footstep, footway,

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

G: gasworks, goldfish, goodlooking, good-morning, goodnight, gunboat, gun-carriage, gunmetal, gunpowder .

H: haircut, handbook, handgrip, handgun, handwork, handwriting, headland, headstone, headway, hereafter, herewith, herself, highlands, highway, himself, horseback, horseplay, horsepower, hourglass, houseboat, housekeeper, however,

I: inasmuch, income, indoors, inland, inlay, inlet, input, inside, instep, into, itself,

K: keyboard, keyhole, keystone, keyword,

L: landmark, landowner, landslip, lighthouse, looking-glass, lookout

M: manhole, milkman, month-end, moonlight, mother-in-law, motherland, myself,

N: needlework, network, newborn, newcomer, newspaper, nobody, notebook, nothing, nowhere,

O: offspring, oncoming, oneself, online, onlooker, onto, ourself, outbuilding, outburst, outcome, outcry, outdo, outdoor, outgoing, outhouse, outlaw, outlet, outline, outlook, output, outside, outskirts, outstretched, overact, overall, overbalancing, overbearing, overcoat, overcome, overdo, overdress, overdrink, overfull, overhang, overhead, overhear, overheat, overland, overleaf, overlook, overseas, oversee, overseer, overshoe, overstatement, overstretch, overtake, overtaxed, overtime, overturn, overuse, overvalue, overweight, overwork,

P: paperback, paperwork, peacekeeper, pincushion, plaything, policeman, postman, postmark, postoffice .

R: railroad, railway, roadway, runway

S: sailboat, sailcloth, sailmaker, schoolhouse, schoolroom, seaman, secondhand, shoemaker, shorthand, shutdown, sideboard, sidewalk, sister-in-law, somebody, someday, somehow, someone, someplace, something, sometime, somewhat, somewhere, son-in-law starfish, starlight, starship, startup, steamboat, steamship, stonework, storehouse, straightforward, suchlike, sunburn, sunbrown, sunlight, sun-shade, sweetheart

T: themselves, throughway, today, tonight, tradesman,

U: underclothes, undercook, underdone, undergo, undergrowth, underhand, undermine, undersea, undersigned, undersized, understatement, undertake, undo, undervalued, update, upkeep, uplift, upon, upright, uptake, username,

V: viewpoint,

W: warship, waterfall, waterway, weekend, well-being, well-off, whatever, whenever, whereas, whereby, wherever, whichever, whitewash, whoever, windpipe, within, without, woodwork, workhouse, workman, workplace, workstation, wrongdoing,

X, Y, Z: x-ray, yearbook, year-end, yearlong, year-long, yourself, zookeeper

Basic English, Common Words In Categories

Colour / Visual: see, look, colour, dark, light, beautiful, shade. black, blue, brown, clear, gray, green, orange, red, yellow, white. Nouns sometimes used: brass, copper, gold, silver, sky.

Direction: about across after against among at between by in with through forward here over under up down on off with direction distance.

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

north south east west left right front back high low far near.

Time: about after at before between till while when again ever now still tomorrow yesterday second minute day week month year fall spring winter summer night time clock first second last morning night early late slow quick

Animals: animal ant, bee, bird, cat, cow, dog, egg, fish, fly, fowl, goat, horse, insect, monkey, pig, rat, sheep, snake, sponge worm, silk worm.

Food and Drink: apple, berry, bread, butter, cake, cheese, drink, egg, food, fish, fruit, grain, meal, meat, milk, nut, orange, potato, rice, root, salt, seed, soup, sugar, water, wine.

International: alcohol, beef, beer, champagne, chocolate, citron, coffee, cocktail, cognac, liqueur, macaroni, olive, omelet, rum, salad, sardine, tapioca, tea, toast, vanilla, vodka, whisky .

Household: building, bread, butter, canvas, cloth, coal, cook, drink, family, food, linen, meal, meat, milk, money, play, rice, room, silk, sleep, soup, step, sugar, vessel, walk, wash, wine, wool, basket, bath, bed, bell, blade, board, book, boot, bottle, box, brick, brush, bucket, bulb, button, cake, camera, card, cart, carriage, chain, cheese, chest, clock, coat, collar, comb, cord, cup, curtain, cushion, door, drain, drawer, dress, flag, floor, fork, frame, glove, hat, jewel, kettle, key, knife, knot, lock, map, match, nail, needle, oven, parcel, pen, pencil, picture, pin, pipe, plate, plow, pot, pump, rail, ring, rod, roof, screw, shelf, shirt, shoe, skirt, sock, spade, sponge, spoon, stamp, stick, stocking, table, thread, ticket, tray, trousers, umbrella, wall, watch, wheel, whip, whistle, window, wire.

Clothes: boot, button, coat, collar, dress, glove, hat, shirt, shoe, silk, skirt, sock, stocking, trousers, umbrella, watch.

Tools: band, blade, brush, bucket, cord, gun, hammer, hook, knife, knot,

nail, needle, pin, pipe, plow, pump, ring, rod, screw, spade, wheel, wire.

Buildings: bridge, building, church, hospital, house, library, prison, school, structure, station, store, street, town, train, wall.

People: baby, boy, daughter, family, father, female, friend, girl, male, man, married, mother, person, relation, self, sister, son, woman.
chief, cook, manager, porter, secretary, servant.
By adding to nouns -er : worker, roofer, etc.

Body Parts: arm, back, body, bone, brain, chest, chin, ear, eye, face, fat, feather, finger, foot, hair, hand, head, heart, horn, knee, leg, lip, mind, mouth, muscle, neck, nerve, nose, skin, stomach, tail, throat, thumb, toe, tongue, tooth, wing.
cough, dead, death, disease, feeble, ill, pain, sneeze.

Materials: brass, copper, glass, gold, iron, leather, material, metal, silver, steel, tin, tree.
brick, canvas, cloth, coal, linen, silk, wool.

Transport: boat, bridge, carriage, flight, harbour, sail, sea, train, transport, plane, rail, river, road, wheel, whistle.

Business / Industry: agreement, business, committee, company, competition, credit, debt, development, distribution, division, exchange, expansion, growth, harbour, industry, instrument, interest, invention, market, manager, money, office, oil, operation, owner, payment, plant, produce, profit, system, trade, transport.

Education: art, authority, chalk, development, direction, education, encyclopedia, growth, history, ink, language, law, learning, letter, music, news, paint, paper, paste, pen, pencil, reading, reason, religion, rule, say, science, school, scissors, square, stamp, talk, teaching, test, theory, thought, word, writing.

Political: act, agreement, authority, committee, control, country, crime, debt, decision, discussion, distribution, division, education, government, history, judge, language, law, meeting, nation, office, order, organisation, political, power, property, protest, punishment, record, religion, representative, secretary, society, tax.

War: army, attack, boat, company, control, country, crush, damage, death, destruction, division, earth, effect, event, fight, fire, flame, general, gun, light, force, harbour, land, map, military, operation, order, organisation, peace, plane, position, powder, power, push, range, river, road, sea, smash, support, vessel, war.

Agriculture / Nature: air, animal, cheese, cloud, cotton, dust, earth, field, farm, fruit, garden, grain, growth, ice, land, leaf, leather, meat, milk, mist, moon, mountain, natural, nut, plant, plow, price, process, produce, rain, range, rice, river, road, salt, sand, seed, sky, slope, snow, spade, star, stream, sun, thunder, water, weather, wind.

Mathematics:

Algebra: addition, amount, division, greater, less, number, power, product, root, times.

Geometry: angle, arch, ball, circle, cord, curve, line, plane, point, square, solid, square.

Basic English, International Words in Categories.

The following Nouns are recognised as International words. They are widely understood without instruction: Most of these words belong science, science notation and measurement:: The system of numbers, The metric system, The measurement of latitude and longitude, Mathematical symbols, Money systems, Chemical formula, Time and the calendar, Proper names, Notation in music.

International Nouns (50): alcohol, aluminum, automobile, bank, bar, beef, beer, calendar, check, chemist, chocolate, chorus, cigarette, club, coffee, colony, dance, engineer, gas, hotel, influenza, lava, madam, nickel, opera, orchestra, paraffin, park, passport, patent, phonograph, piano, police, post, programme, propaganda, radio, restaurant, sir, sport, taxi, tea, telegram, telephone, terrace, theatre, tobacco, university, whisky, zinc.

Names of Sciences (12): Algebra, Arithmetic, Biology, Chemistry, Geography, Geology, Geometry, Mathematics, Physics, Physiology, Psychology, Zoology.

International Names used in Titles, Organisations, Diplomacy, etc. (12): College, Dominion, Embassy, Empire, Imperial, King, Museum, President, Prince, Princess, Queen, Royal.

General Utility (50): ammonia, asbestos, autobus, ballet, cafe, catarrh, champagne, chauffeur, circus, citron, cocktail, cognac, dynamite, encyclopedia, glycerin, hyena, hygiene, hysteria, inferno, jazz, liqueur, macaroni, malaria, mania, nicotine, olive, omelet, opium, paradise, penguin, platinum, potash, pajamas, pyramid, quinine, radium, referendum, rheumatism, rum, salad, sardine, tapioca, toast, torpedo, vanilla, violin, visa, vodka, volt, zebra.

Sound words: Bang (noise made by burst); Hiss (noise of a snake); Meow (sound of a cat); Purr (sound of a happy cat); Quack (sound of a duck).

Time and Numbers (50): January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November, December. Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday. One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, twenty, twenty-one, thirty, forty, fifty, hundred, thousand, million, once, twice, half, quarter, third, fourth, fifth.

The most common words in General Science (100): active, adjacent, adsorption, age, alternative, application, arc, area, arrangement, ash, axis, break, bubble, capacity, case, cell, column, component, compound, continuous, cross, decrease, deficiency, deposit, determining, difference, difficulty, direct, disappearance, discharge, disturbance, elimination, environment, equation, evaporation, exact, experiment, explanation, focus, friction, fusion, generation, groove, guard, hinge, impurity, individual, interpretation, investigation, joint, latitude, layer, length, link, longitude, mean, melt, mixture, nucleus, origin, path, per, pressure, projection, proof, reference, relative, reproduction, resistance, rigidity, rock, rot, rotation, screen, seal, section, sensitivity, shadow, shear, shell, similarity, solution, spark, specialisation, specimen, stimulus, strain, strength, stress, substitution, successive, supply, surface, swelling, thickness, thrust, tide, transmission, transparent, tube, valve.

In Science we often use these parts of words: per (used in giving rates); non- (often used instead of un-); and -th (for ordinal numbers in naming).

International Words in Science:

Common Usage: anesthetic, bomb, electricity, magnetic, microscope, neutron, organism, petroleum, serum, thermometer, tropism, turbine, vitamin.

Technical List: allotropy, endothelium, hemocyanin, isomorphism, phylogeny, tropism.

Physics - Chemistry (50): absorption, beaker, buoyancy, charge, circuit, clip, coil, collision, combination, conductor, conservation, corrosion, density, dilution, dissipation, explosion, flask, fume, funnel, furnace, grating, image, insulator, lag, lens, medium, oxidation, particle, pendulum, plug, porcelain, radiation, reagent, receiver, reflux, repulsion, residue, reversible, saturated, solvent, stable, stream, suspension, switch, tongs, trap, valency, vapour, vortex, wedge.

Geology (50): accessory, birefringence, cast, cave, clay, cleavage, contour, desert, dike, dip, drift, erosion, eruption, extinction, fan, fault, flint, flood, flow, foliation, fracture, glacier, gravel, ground, hill, igneous, inclusion, intercept, interpenetration, intrusion, lake, limestone, mud, ore, outcrop, outlier, overlap, plain, scarp, schist, sedimentary, shale, shore, sill, slate, strike, texture, twin, unconformity, valley.

Mathematics and Mechanics (50): acceleration, amplitude, approximation, arbitrary, circumference, congruent, constant, cusp, damping, denominator, diameter, divisor, fraction, infinity, integer, intersection, inverse, lever, load, locus, magnitude, momentum, multiple, multiplication, node, numerator, oblique, piston, prime, probability, product, projectile, pulley, quantity, quotient, ratio, reciprocal, rectangle, recurring, reinforcement, resolution, subtraction, sum, term, total, triangle, unknown, variable, velocity, volume.

Biology (50): abdomen, appendage, bark, beak, bud, cartilage, cavity, claw, climber, creeper, degenerate, domesticating, duct, ferment, fertilizing, fiber, fin, fresh, germinating, gill, gland, hoof, host, inheritance, jaw, juice, kidney, liver, lung, mature, metabolism, parent, petal, pollen, sac, scale, secretion, sepal, skull, slide, soil, stain, stalk, stamen, sucker, thorax, tissue, vascular, vestigial, wild.

Commerce

Business (50): acceptance, address, agency, allowance, assets, assistant, average, bale, bankrupt, barrel, bill, broker, certificate, charge, claim, client, code, complaint, consignment, cost, court, customs, debit, deck, defect, delivery, export, gross, guarantee, hire, hold, import, investment, liability, license, load, loan, packing, pair, partner, purchase, reference, retail, sale, sample, show, sight, strike, supply, wholesale.

Economics (50): accident, arbitration, asset, average, bill, broker, budget, circulation, combine, consumer, conversion, correlation, cost, deflation, demand, deposit, discount, efficiency, effort, employer, experiment, factor,

fatigue, guarantee, habit, index, inflation, investment, liability, loan, margin, monopoly, partner, pension, plan, population, purchase, rent, retail, sale, saving, security, service, share, speculation, statistics, stimulus, strike, supply, wholesale.

Trade: cash, premium, service, slump, dock, net (basic), warrant; canal, capital, carton, consul, guarantee, minus, per cent, plus, propaganda, stand, waggon; balance, forward, case, royalty, duties; capital, firm, wages.

Social and Political Science: association, attitudes, class, community, culture, custom, environment, heredity, incentive, integration, standardisation, State, technology, unemployment; concentration, control, decentralisation, structure, will.

Verse (100): angel, arrow, beast, blind, bow, breast, bride, brow, bud, calm, child, cross, crown, curse, dawn, delight, dew, dove, dream, eagle, eternal, evening, evil, fair, faith, fate, feast, flock, flow, fountain, fox, gentle, glad, glory, God, grace, grape, grief, guest, hawk, heaven, hell, hill, holy, honey, honour, image, ivory, joy, lamb, lark, life, lion, lord, meadow, melody, mercy, noble, passion, perfume, pity, pool, praise, prayer, pride, priest, purple, rapture, raven, robe, rock, rose, rush, search, shining, shower, sorrow, soul, spear, spirit, storm, stream, strength, sword, thief, tower, travel, valley, veil, vine, violet, virgin, virtue, vision, wandering, wealth, weariness, weeping, wisdom, wolf, wonder.

Bible, Church (50): altar, ark, ass, ax, baptism, blessing, captain, cattle, circumcision, cock, deceit, disciple, envy, flesh, forgiveness, generation, herd, heritage, husband, kingdom, leaven, leper, locust, master, neighbor, oath, ox, people, pillar, preaching, prophet, revelation, righteousness, saint, salvation, savior, scribe, sin, spice, tent, testament, thorn, tribe, virgin, widow, wife, witness, world, worship, wrath, yoke.

International Words frequently used in the Media: academy, academic, accumulator, adieu, alphabet, alpha, ampere, apostrophe, atlas, atmosphere, atom, baby, bacillus, balcony, banana, banjo, barbarism, baritone, bayonet, benzyl, bicycle, billiards, blonde, blouse, bonbon, boss, bouquet, boulevard, bourgeois, brave, bridge, buffet, bulletin, bull-dog, cable, cafeteria, cadet, calico, camouflage, caravan, card, carnival, catastrophe, caviar, center, chaos, civilization, cocoa, communist, condenser, contralto, cosmopolitan, crepe, cricket, crochet, dahlia, decadent, demagogue, dessert, diarrhea, dictionary, dilettante, dynamo, dyspepsia, economic, electric, electron, element, energy, ensemble, erotic, eucalyptus, eugenics, façade, feminism, film, fresco, flirt, freemason, frieze, garage, gazette, gentleman, golf, gondola, grammar, graph, guillotine, gymnastics, hockey, hor d'oeuvres, hyacinth, imperial, impromptu, intelligentsia, interest, iodine, kangaroo, kodak, laboratory, lacquer, lady, lamp, lancet, lavatory, league, legal, lemon, lion, lunch, lynch, machine, mademoiselle, magnet, mannequin, manuscript, mash, maximum, memo, menthol, minimum, minus, modern, monopoly, monsieur, moral, morphia, motif, motor, music, muslin, narcissus, nature, negro, nuance, oasis, obelisk, octave, option, optimism, oracle, palace, palette, panic, panorama, paradox, parallel, parasol, parody, pathos, pessimism, philosophy, phonetics, photograph, picnic, pince-nez, ping-pong, pistol, plus, polo, porridge, pragmatism, press, prima-donna, professor, profile, proletariat, promenade, public, pudding, realism, register, rendezvous, republic, revue, rhetoric, rhythm, robot, rotor, roulette, rucksack, sabotage, sago, salon, saloon, sapphire, satyr, saxophone, scenario, schema, scout, serenade, sextant, shampoo, shellac, silhouette, ski, socialism, soirée, solo, soprano, soufflé, souvenir, spectrum, sphinx, staccato, stadium, station, steppe, student, symbolism, symmetry, symphony, synchronisation, syndicalism, syntax, syringe, system, tango, technique, technology, tempo, tennis, tenor, text, theory, thermometer, toilet, tomato, tournament, tragedy, tramway, transformer, turban, turbine, typhoon, tsar, unicorn, universe, utopia, vaudeville, verandah, vermouth, waffle, waltz, whist, xylophone, zigzag .

NAMES OF COUNTRIES, THEIR NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

Learn how to say the names of different countries and their associated nationalities in English. It is important as most names you use in Chinese are useless when you talk to any foreigner. Reason: The country names in Chinese are totally different from their originals because they do not fit into the Chinese sound system.. There are only a few names whose meaning a foreigner could guess. Example: 意大利 **yìdàlì** (Italy), 阿根廷 **āgēntíng** (Argentina), 印度 **yìndù** (India). The Chinese sound of names such as 美国 **měiguó** (America), 德国 **déguó** (Germany), 法国 **fǎguó** (France), 中国 **zhōngguó** (China), 巴西 **bāxī** (Brazil) etc. do not make sense as for they are too different from the originals. Most western country names belong to the so-called "international names" which are more or less the same in all western languages. An English name such as America, Brazil, Africa, Europe, France, Britain, Germany etc. would be understood by most western people, even when they do not speak English! By the way, even the name "China" is Chinese. It comes from the name Qin 秦 as in **qín shǐ huáng** 秦始皇.

The Adjective forms for countries and the names for citizens of countries are often confusing in English. This has two reasons. First, there is no easy way to change a country's name to its Adjective form because several different endings are used for this purpose. Second, the words for nationalities are often the same as the Adjective forms, but not always. Here some rules:

- Any country name (China), its Adjective used for describing origins, culture, nationality, language etc. (Chinese), and its Noun used for the people, is written with a capital letter at its beginning. Words for countries are proper Nouns. All proper Nouns begin with a capital letter in English
- The Plural for most Nouns is –s (German – two Germans); when the Noun

ends on –ese (Chinese) the Plural is also –ese (two Chinese), the same rule applies when the Noun ends in -i (Pakistani – two Pakistani)

- Some countries have other names as for the political situation had changed in those countries: Persia – Iran, Burma – Myanmar, Zaire – Congo, Soviet Union – Russia, Ivory Coast – Cote d'Ivoire, Yugoslavia – Croatia, Serbia, Montenegro, Slovenia, Macedonia, Kosovo, Bosnia-Herzegovina.
- For the United Arab Emirates, two different Adjectives and nationality forms are used: Emirian and Emirati. Both of these are used as Adjectives and nationality forms. Emirati is more common.
- The United Kingdom is one country that consists of a union of other countries and territories. The other countries (for example, England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland) and territories (for example, the Falkland Islands, the Bahamas and the British West Indies) have their own Adjectives and nationality forms, but British refers generally to all parts of the United Kingdom.
- "American" can refer to any country or nationality which is located in North, Central, or South America, but there are no special Adjectives or nationality forms for the United States, so we often use the specified term US-American.

Country	Noun / Person(s)	Adjective	Correspondence Designation
Afghanistan	Afghan(s) Afghani	Afghan Afghani	Transitional Islamic State of Afghanistan
Albania	Albanian(s)	Albanian	Republic of Albania
Algeria	Algerian(s)	Algerian	People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Angola	Angolan(s)	Angolan	People's Republic of Angola

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Antigua and Barbuda	Antiguan(s), Barbudan(s)	Antiguan, Barbudan	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina	Argentine(s)	Argentine	Argentine Republic
Armenia	Armenian(s)	Armenian	Republic of Armenia
Australia	Australian(s)	Australian	Commonwealth of Australia
Austria	Austrian(s)	Austrian	Republic of Austria
Azerbaijan	Azerbaijani(s)	Azerbaijani	Azerbaijan Republic
Bahamas, The	Bahamian(s)	Bahamian	Commonwealth of the Bahamas
Bahrain	Bahraini(s)	Bahraini	Kingdom of Bahrain
Bangladesh	Bangladeshi(s)	Bangladeshi	People's Republic of Bangladesh
Barbados	Barbadian(s)	Barbadian	Barbados
Belarus	Belarussian(s)	Belarussian	Republic of Belarus
Belgium	Belgian(s)	Belgian	Kingdom of Belgium
Belize	Belizean(s)	Belizean	Belize
Benin	Beninese	Beninese	Republic of Benin
Bhutan	Bhutanese	Bhutanese	Kingdom of Bhutan
Bolivia	Bolivian(s)	Bolivian	Republic of Bolivia
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bosnian(s)	Bosnian	Bosnia and Herzegovina
Botswana	Motswana (sg.), Batswana (pl.)	of Botswana	Republic of Botswana
Brazil	Brazilian(s)	Brazilian	Federative Republic of Brazil
Brunei	Bruneian(s)	Bruneian	Brunei Darussalam

Bulgaria	Bulgarian(s)	Bulgarian	Republic of Bulgaria
Burkina Faso	Burkinabe	Burkinabe	Burkina Faso
Burma	Burmese	Burmese	(see Myanmar)
Burundi	Murundi (sg.), Barundi (pl.)	of Burundi	Republic of Burundi
Cambodia	Cambodian(s)	Cambodian	Kingdom of Cambodia
Cameroon	Cameroonian(s)	Cameroonian	Republic of Cameroon
Canada	Canadian(s)	Canadian	Canada
Cape Verde	Cape Verdean(s)	Cape Verdean	Republic of Cape Verde
Central African Republic	Central African(s)	Central African	Central African Republic
Chad	Chadian(s)	Chadian	Republic of Chad
Chile	Chilean(s)	Chilean	Republic of Chile
China	Chinese	Chinese	People's Republic of China
Colombia	Colombian(s)	Colombian	Republic of Colombia
Comoros	Comorian(s)	Comorian	Union of the Comoros
Congo, Zaire	Congolese	Congolese	Democratic Republic of the Congo (former Belgian Congo)
Congo	Congolese	Congolese	Republic of Congo
Costa Rica	Costa Rican(s)	Costa Rican	Republic of Costa Rica
Côte d'Ivoire	Ivorian(s)	Ivorian	Republic of Cote d'Ivoire
Croatia	Croat[ian](s)	Croat[ian]	Republic of Croatia
Cuba	Cuban(s)	Cuban	Republic of Cuba
Cyprus	Cypriot(s)	Cypriot	Republic of Cyprus

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Czech Republic	Czech(s)	Czech	Czech Republic
Denmark	Dane(s)	Danish	Kingdom of Denmark
Djibouti	Djiboutian(s)	Djibouti	Republic of Djibouti
Dominica	Dominican(s)	of Dominica	Commonwealth of Dominica
Dominican Republic	Dominican(s)	Dominican	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	Ecuadoran(s)	Ecuadoran	Republic of Ecuador
Egypt,	Egyptian(s)	Egyptian	Arab Republic of Egypt
El Salvador	Salvadoran(s)	Salvadoran	Republic of El Salvador
Equatorial Guinea	Equatorial Guinean(s)	Equatorial Guinean	Republic of Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea	Eritrean(s)	Eritrean	State of Eritrea
Estonia	Estonian(s)	Estonian	Republic of Estonia
Ethiopia	Ethiopian(s)	Ethiopian	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
Fiji	Fijian(s)	Fijian	Republic of Fiji
Finland	Finn(s)	Finnish	Republic of Finland
France	French (sing./pl.)	French	French Republic
Gabon	Gabonese	Gabonese	Gabonese Republic
Gambia, The	Gambian(s)	Gambian	Republic of The Gambia
Georgia	Georgian(s)	Georgian	Georgia
Germany	German(s)	German	Federal Republic of Germany
Ghana	Ghanaian(s)	Ghanaian	Republic of Ghana
Great Britain	British	British	(see United Kingdom)

Greece	Greek(s)	Greek	Hellenic Republic
Grenada	Grenadian(s)	Grenadian	Grenada
Guatemala	Guatemalan(s)	Guatemalan	Republic of Guatemala
Guinea	Guinean(s)	Guinean	Republic of Guinea
Guinea-Bissau	Guinean(s)	Guinea-Bissau	Republic of Guinea-Bissau
Guyana	Guyanese	Guyanese	Republic of Guyana
Haiti	Haitian(s)	Haitian	Republic of Haiti
Honduras	Honduran(s)	Honduran	Republic of Honduras
Hungary	Hungarian(s)	Hungarian	Republic of Hungary
Iceland	Icelander(s)	Icelandic	Republic of Iceland
India	Indian(s)	Indian	Republic of India
Indonesia	Indonesian(s)	Indonesian	Republic of Indonesia
Iran (Persia*)	Iranian(s)	Iranian	Islamic Republic of Iran
Iraq	Iraqi(s)	Iraq or Iraqi	Republic of Iraq
Ireland	Irish[man(men)]	Irish	Ireland
Israel	Israeli(s)	Israel or Israeli	State of Israel
Italy	Italian(s)	Italian	Italian Republic
Ivory Coast			(see Cote d'Ivoire)
Jamaica	Jamaican(s)	Jamaican	Jamaica
Japan	Japanese	Japanese	Japan
Jordan	Jordanian(s)	Jordanian	Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan
Kazakhstan	Kazakhstani(s)	Kazakhstani	Republic of Kazakhstan
Kenya	Kenyan(s)	Kenyan	Republic of Kenya
Kiribati	I-Kiribati	Kiribati	Republic of Kiribati

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Korea, South	South Korean(s)	South Korean	Republic of Korea
Kuwait	Kuwaiti(s)	Kuwaiti	State of Kuwait
Kyrgyzstan	Kyrgyz	Kyrgyz	Kyrgyz Republic
Laos	Lao, the Lao	Lao	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Latvia	Latvian(s)	Latvian	Republic of Latvia
Lebanon	Lebanese (sg./pl.)	Lebanese	Lebanese Republic
Lesotho	Mosotho (sg.), Basotho (pl.)	Lesotho	Kingdom of Lesotho
Liberia	Liberian(s)	Liberian	Republic of Liberia
Libya	Libyan(s)	Libyan	Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Lithuania	Lithuanian(s)	Lithuanian	Republic of Lithuania
Luxembourg	Luxembourger(s)	Luxembourgish	Grand Duchy of Luxembourg
Macedonia	Macedonian	Macedonian	former Yugoslav Republic of
Madagascar	Malagasy (sg./pl.)	Malagasy	Republic of Madagascar
Malawi	Malawian(s)	Malawian	Republic of Malawi
Malaysia	Malaysian(s)	Malaysian	Malaysia
Maldives	Maldivian(s)	Maldivian	Republic of Maldives
Mali	Malian(s)	Malian	Republic of Mali
Malta	Maltese (sing./pl.)	Maltese	Republic of Malta

Marshall Islands	Marshallese	Marshall Islands	Republic of the Marshall Islands
Mauritania	Mauritanian(s)	Mauritanian	Islamic Republic of Mauritania
Mauritius	Mauritian(s)	Mauritian	Mauritius
Mexico	Mexican(s)	Mexican	United Mexican States
Micronesia	Micronesian(s)	Micronesian	Federated States of Micronesia
Moldova	Moldovan(s)	Moldovan	Republic of Moldova
Mongolia	Mongolian(s)	Mongolian	Mongolia
Morocco	Moroccan(s)	Moroccan	Kingdom of Morocco
Mozambique	Mozambican(s)	Mozambican	Republic of Mozambique
Myanmar	Myanmar	of Myanmar	Union of Myanmar
Namibia	Namibian(s)	Namibian	Republic of Namibia
Nepal	Nepalese	Nepalese	Kingdom of Nepal
Netherlands	Dutch	Dutch	Kingdom of the Netherlands
New Zealand	New Zealander(s)	New Zealandish	New Zealand
Nicaragua	Nicaraguan(s)	Nicaraguan	Republic of Nicaragua
Niger	Nigerien(s)	Nigerien	Republic of Niger
Nigeria	Nigerian(s)	Nigerian	Federal Republic of Nigeria
Norway	Norwegian(s)	Norwegian	Kingdom of Norway
Oman	Omani(s)	Omani	Sultanate of Oman
Pakistan	Pakistani(s)	Pakistani	Islamic Republic of Pakistan

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Palau	Palauan(s)	Palauan	Republic of Palau
Panama	Panamanian(s)	Panamanian	Republic of Panama
Papua New Guinea	Papua New Guinean(s)	Papua New Guinea	The Independent State of Papua New Guinea
Paraguay	Paraguayan(s)	Paraguayan	Republic of Paraguay
Peru	Peruvian(s)	Peruvian	Republic of Peru
Philippines	Filipino(s)	Philippine	Republic of the Philippines
Poland	Pole(s)	Polish	Republic of Poland
Portugal	Portuguese (sing./pl.)	Portuguese	Portuguese Republic
Qatar	Qatari(s)	Qatar or Qatari	State of Qatar
Romania	Romanian(s)	Romanian	Romania
Russia	Russian(s)	Russian	Russian Federation
Rwanda	Rwandese	Rwandese	Republic of Rwanda
Samoa	Samoan(s)	Samoan	Samoa
San Marino	Sammarinese	Sammarinese	Republic of San Marino
São Tomé and Príncipe	Saotomean(s)	Saotomean	Democratic Republic of Sao Tome and Principe
Saudi Arabia	Saudi Arabian(s)	Saudi Arabian	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Senegal	Senegalese	Senegalese	Republic of Senegal
Serbia and Montenegro	Serbian Montenegrine	Serbian Montenegrine	Serbia and Montenegro
Seychelles	Seychellean	Seychellean	Republic of Seychelles
Sierra Leone	Sierra Leonean(s)	Sierra Leonean	Republic of Sierra Leone
Singapore	Singaporean(s)	Singaporean	Republic of Singapore

Slovakia	Slovak(s)	Slovak	Slovak Republic
Slovenia	Slovenian(s)	Slovenian	Republic of Slovenia
Solomon Islands	Solomon Islander(s)	of the Solomon Islands	Solomon Islands
Somalia	Somali(s)	Somali	Somali Democratic Republic
South Africa	South African(s)	South African	Republic of South Africa
Spain	Spaniard(s)	Spanish	Kingdom of Spain
Sri Lanka	Sri Lankan(s)	Sri Lankan	Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka
St. Kitts and Nevis	Kittitian(s), Nevisian(s)	St. Kitts and Nevis	St. Kitts and Nevis
St. Lucia	St. Lucian(s)	St. Lucian	St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	St. Vincentian(s) or Vincentian(s)	of St. Vincentian or Vincentian	St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Sudan	Sudanese	Sudanese	Republic of the Sudan
Suriname	Surinamese	Surinamese	Republic of Suriname
Swaziland	Swazi(s)	Swazi	Kingdom of Swaziland
Sweden	Swede(s)	Swedish	Kingdom of Sweden
Switzerland	Swiss (sing./pl.)	Swiss	Switzerland
Syria	Syrian(s)	Syrian	Syrian Arab Republic
Taiwan	Taiwanese	Taiwanese	Republic of China
Tajikistan	Tajik(s)	Tajik	Republic of Tajikistan
Tanzania	Tanzanian(s)	Tanzanian	United Republic of Tanzania
Thailand	Thai(s)	Thai	Kingdom of Thailand

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Timor-Leste	Timorese	Timorese	Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste
Togo	Togolese	Togolese	Republic of Togo
Tonga	Tongan(s)	Tongan	Kingdom of Tonga
Trinidad and Tobago	Trinidadian(s), Tobagonian(s)	Trinidadian and Tobagonian	Republic of Trinidad and Tobago
Tunisia	Tunisian(s)	Tunisian	Republic of Tunisia
Turkey	Turk(s)	Turkish	Republic of Turkey
Turkmenistan	Turkmen(s)	Turkmen	Turkmenistan
Uganda	Ugandan(s)	Ugandan	The Republic of Uganda
Ukraine	Ukrainian(s)	Ukrainian	Ukraine
United Arab Emirates	Emiran	Emiran	United Arab Emirates
United Kingdom	British	British	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
United States	American(s)	American	United States of America
Uruguay	Uruguayan(s)	Uruguayan	Oriental Republic of Uruguay
Uzbekistan	Uzbek(s)	Uzbek	Republic of Uzbekistan
Vanuatu	Vanuatuian	Vanuatuian	Republic of Vanuatu
Venezuela	Venezuelan(s)	Venezuelan	Republica Bolivariana de Venezuela
Vietnam	Vietnamese	Vietnamese	Socialist Republic of Vietnam
Yemen	Yemeni(s)	Yemeni	Republic of Yemen

Yugoslavia	Yugoslavian	Yugoslavian	(see Serbia and Montenegro)
Zaire	Congolese	Congolese	(see Congo, Dem. Rep. of)
Zambia	Zambian(s)	Zambian	Republic of Zambia
Zimbabwe	Zimbabwean(s)	Zimbabwean	Republic of Zimbabwe

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ANTONYMS

(An Antonym refers to a word that means the opposite of the example word.)

Remember: We also can express the opposite with the little word "**not**". **Adjectives:** *not above, not below, not abroad, not home*; **Verbs:** *he does not give, he does not take*; **Nouns with Article:** *not an adult, not a child, not the boss, not an employee*; *he is not an enemy, he is not a friend*; **Nouns without Article:** *likelihood, no likelihood*.

Word	Opposite	Word	Opposite
above	below	abroad	home
absent	present	absent	present
accept	refuse	active	passive
add	subtract	admit	deny
adult	child	alive	dead
all	none	allow	refuse
always	never	arrive	depart
asleep	awake	back	front
backwards	forwards	bad	good
barren	fertile	beautiful	ugly
before	after	begin	end
bent	straight	best	worst
better	worse	big	small
black	white	blameless	guilty
bless	curse	blunt	sharp
bold	timid	bold	timid
boss	employee	bravery	cowardice
break	repair	bridge	tunnel
bright	dull	broad	narrow
busy	idle	buy	sell
capture	release	catch	throw
cheap	dear	city	country
clean	dirty	clever	foolish
cloudy	clear	clumsy	graceful

coarse	fine	cold	hot
come	go	comedy	tragedy
comfort	disturb	common	rare
common	unusual	contract	expand
cool	warm	coward	hero
cowardly	bold	create	destroy
cry	laugh	daily	nightly
danger	safety	dark	bright
dawn	dusk	day	night
deep	shallow	depth	height
die	live	difficult	easy
dim	bright	discourteous	polite
divide	multiply	doctor	patient
drunk	sober	dry	wet
dwarf	giant	early	late
ease	difficulty	easy	difficult
ebb	flow	empty	full
enemy	friend	enjoy	dislike
entrance	exit	evening	morning
ever	never	everybody	nobody
everywhere	nowhere	exit	entrance
fact	fiction	failure	success
fair	dark	famous	unknown
fancy	plain	far	near
fat	thin	fat	skinny
few	many	find	lose
finish	start	first	last
flatter	insult	foe	friend
foolish	wise	foreign	local
forget	remember	found	lost
freeze	thaw	fresh	stale
fresh	stale	friend	enemy
full	vacant	future	past

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generous	selfish	give	receive
give	take	graceful	awkward
guilty	innocent	happy	sad
hard	easy	hard	soft
head	tail	heavy	light
hell	heaven	help	hinder
here	there	hide	show
high	low	hill	valley
humble	proud	husband	wife
in	out	include	exclude
increase	decrease	increase	decrease
indifferent	interested	inner	outer
inside	outside	insult	praise
interested	bored	interesting	dull
joy	sorrow	junior	senior
kind	cruel	kind	cruel
knowledge	ignorance	lazy	industrious
lead	follow	least	greatest
leave	arrive	lend	borrow
level	steep	life	death
liquid	solid	long	short
loss	gain	loud	soft
love	hate	majority	minority
many	few	masculine	feminine
master	servant	mean	kind
miser	spendthrift	modern	ancient
most	least	motorist	pedestrian
mountain	valley	natural	artificial
near	far	never	always
niece	nephew	noise	silence
noisy	quiet	normal	abnormal
north	south	notice	ignore
obey	command	obtain	give

often	seldom	old	new
omit	include	open	shut / close
order	chaos	overlook	notice
pardon	punish	part	whole
past	future	peace	war
plural	singular	polite	rude
polite	rude	poor	rich
powerful	weak	praise	blame
public	private	public	private
punish	reward	pupil	teacher
purchase	sell	push	pull
question	answer	quick	slow
raw	cooked	real	imaginary
right	left	rise	fall
rough	smooth	sad	cheerful
safe	dangerous	same	different
separate	join	several	few
silly	serious	similar	different
slim	fat	smile	frown
smile	frown	straight	crooked
straight	crooked	strange	familiar
strong	weak	summer	winter
sweet	sour	talk	listen
tall	short	tame	wild
teach	learn	teacher	student
these	those	thick	thin
this	that	tight	loose
tiny	huge	top	bottom
trainer	trainee	trust	doubt
truth	lie	under	over
unusual	ordinary	up	down
upset	comfort	vacant	occupied
valuable	worthless	victory	defeat

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villain	hero	war	peace
wide	narrow	win	lose
wise	foolish	within	without
work	rest	wrong	right
yes	no	young	old
north(ern)	south(ern)	west(ern)	east(ern)
northwest(ern)	southeast(ern)	southwest(ern)	northeast(ern)
Septentrional(is)	Meridional(is)	Occident(alis)	Orient(alis)
Boreal(is)	Austral(is)	Arctic	Antarctic
North Pole	South Pole	perpendicular*	not perpendicular
*latitude	*longitude	*Equator	*Meridian

Antonyms (with un-; or with "not . . ." before an Adjective in a predicative expression;
so instead of **"an unfair person"** we can say **"a person who is not fair"**)

attractive	unattractive	able	unable
acceptable	unacceptable	accompanied	unaccompanied
arm	unarm	certain	uncertain
comfortable	uncomfortable	common	uncommon
conscious	unconscious	dress	undress
equal	unequal	ethical	unethical
even	uneven	fair	unfair
fold	unfold	friendly	unfriendly
happy	unhappy	healthy	unhealthy
just	unjust	justifiable	unjustifiable
known	unknown	kind	unkind
lawful	unlawful	licensed	unlicensed
like	unlike	likely	unlikely
lock	unlock	necessary	unnecessary
patriotic	unpatriotic	popular	unpopular
prepared	unprepared	safe	unsafe
screw	unscrew	seen	unseen
selfish	unselfish	steady	unsteady

suitable	unsuitable	tidy	untidy
tie	untie	used	unused
willing	unwilling	wise	unwise

Antonyms (with dis-)

advantage	disadvantage	agree	disagree
allow	disallow	appear	disappear
arm	disarm	arrange	disarrange
associate	disassociate	believe	disbelieve
connect	disconnect	continue	discontinue
embark	disembark	encourage	discourage
enfranchise	disenfranchise	honest	dishonest
incentive	disincentive	indispensable	dispensable
like	dislike	loyal	disloyal
obey	disobey	proportionate	disproportionate
order	disorder	own	disown
satisfied	dissatisfied	trust	distrust

Antonyms (with in-)

accurate	inaccurate	active	inactive
adequate	inadequate	admissible	inadmissible
attentive	inattentive	correct	incorrect

Antonyms (with im-)

mature	immature	mobile	immobile
moral	immoral	mortal	immortal
movable	immoveable	patient	impatient
perfect	imperfect	polite	impolite
possible	impossible	probable	improbable
proper	improper	pure	impure

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Antonyms (with mis-)

handle	mishandle	judge	misjudge
spell	misspell	understand	misunderstand
use	misuse		

Antonyms (ending in -less)

careful	careless	harmful	harmless
helpful	helpless	hopeful	hopeless
painful	painless	pitiful	pitiless
powerful	powerless	shameful	shameless
useful	useless		

SYNONYMS

(A Synonym refers to a substitute word that means the same or nearly the same as the example word.)

Word	Synonym	Word	Synonym
abduct	kidnap	abhor	detest
above	over	abridge	shorten
abroad	overseas	abrogate	cancel
abstain	refrain	accord	agreement
admit	confess	adversary	opponent
affable	friendly	aggravate	worsen
agree	consent	air	discuss
akin	related	alive	lively
allocate	distribute	allow	permit
also	too	ameliorate	improve
amount	quantity	annul	cancel
answer	response	appease	pacify
arraign	indict	ask	Inquire
assembly	gathering	assent	agree

attire	dress	avarice	greed
baby	infant	bad	evil
badger	pester	beg	implore
begin	commence	behaviour	conduct
belief	opinion	benevolent	kind
berate	scold	big	large
bilk	swindle	blamed	accused
blank	empty	bliss	happiness
bottom	sole, ground	brave	daring, bold
brawn	strength	bright	shinning
broad	wide	brook	tolerate
bucolic	rustic	build	construct
busy	active	buy	purchase
calamity	disaster	canon	rule
capitulate	surrender	careen	swerve
careful	cautious	castigate	criticise
catastrophic	disastrous	catch	capture
caucus	meeting	cavort	frolic
cede	relinquish	celestial	heavenly
centre	middle	champion	winner
change	alter	cheat	deceive
chide	scold	choose	select
chubby	plump	circumspect	cautious
clemency	forgiveness	clergyman	minister
close	near	clothes	dress
clout	influence	coagulate	thicken
coddle	pamper	coercion	force
collusion	conspiracy	commend	praise
commodity	product	compulsory	obligatory
concise	brief	concur	agree
confer	bestow	conversant	familiar
converse	opposite	copy	imitate
cordial	friendly	correct	accurate

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courtesan	prostitute	covert	secret
crave	desire	culvert	drain
cunning	sly	cure	remedy
curtail	shorten	damp	moist
dangerous	risky	deadly	fatal
dear	expensive	dearth	scarcity
debilitate	weaken	deceive	trick
decimate	destroy	decipher	decode
decrease	reduce	deduce	conclude
deleterious	harmful	delude	deceive
demeanour	behaviour	demise	death
demobilise	disband	demoralise	dishearten
denigrate	defame	denounce	condemn
depart	leave	deplete	exhaust
deride	ridicule	desecrate	profane
desiccate	dehydrate	despot	tyrant
destitute	poor	detain	confine
detrimental	harmful	devise	plan
devout	pious	diabolical	devilish
diffident	shy	discernible	visible
discreet	prudent	disease	sickness
disfigure	mar	dismal	gloomy
disorder	distend	swell	send
disperse	scatter	disseminate	distribute
distract	divert	diversity	variety
divulge	disclose	dodder	tremble
dull	gloomy	dumb	mute
duress	coercion	eatable	edible
ebb	recede	eccentric	odd, weird
edifice	building	efficacious	effective
egocentric	self-centered	electorate	voters
elucidate	explain	elude	evade
empty	vacant	end	conclusion

enemy	foe	enough	sufficient
ensnare	trap, lure	enterprise	undertaking
entice	lure	entreat	plead
envoy	messenger	ephemeral	short-lived
epoch	era	equitable	fair
error	mistake	escape	elude
exorbitant	expensive	exorcise	expel
fable	myth	fall	drop
false	untrue, wrong	fantasy	daydream
far	distant	feather	plume
feign	pretend	fertile	fruitful
fidelity	loyalty	fierce	ferocious
fight	battle	filch	steal
find	discover	first	initial
fiscal	monetary	flagellate	whip
float	drift	force	compel
foretell	predict	free	release
friend	companion	friend	ally
funny	amusing	furtive	stealthy
gain	profit	game	recreation
gargantuan	large	garrulous	talkative
gather	collect	gay	cheerful
general	common	genesis	beginning
ghastly	horrible	give	donate
glad	happy	glaring	dazzling
gnarl	deform	gory	bloody
guest	visitor	guffaw	laughter
habit	custom	habituate	accustom
hale	healthy	hallucination	delusion
hamper	obstruct	hapless	unlucky
harangue	tirade	hard	difficult
hate	detest	haven	refuge
height	altitude	help	assist

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herald	harbinger	hew	cut
hide	conceal	hideous	horrible
high	tall	home	residence
hone	sharpen	horde	group
hue	colour	hug	embrace
huge	enormous	humane	compassionate
hygienic	sanitary	hyperbole	exaggeration
idiosyncrasy	peculiarity	illicit	unlawful
illimitable	limitless	illustrious	famous
imbibe	drink	imitate	copy
immaterial	irrelevant	immense	huge
impale	pierce	impasse	deadlock
impassive	calm	impeccable	faultless
impede	hinder	impending	imminent
imperil	endanger	implicate	incriminate
implore	entreat	inculcate	instill
incursion	raid	indelible	permanent
indigent	poor	indiscriminate	random
indolent	lazy	industrious	hardworking
inexorable	relentless	infamous	notorious
infamy	shame	infer	conclude
infirmity	ailment	influx	inflow
infraction	violation	infuriate	enrage
inhibit	restrain	iniquitous	unjust
initiate	begin	inkling	hint
innate	inborn	innocuous	harmless
innuendo	insinuation	inordinate	excessive
inquisitive	curious	inscribe	engrave
inside	interior	insignia	emblems
insolvent	bankrupt	instigate	incite
inter	bury	interesting	fascinating
intrepid	fearless	intricate	complex
intrigue	plot	intrinsic	inherent

inundate	flood	involve	implicate
irate	angry	irrational	illogical
jeer	mock	jest	joke
jocular	humourous	join	connect
jostle	push	judicious	prudent
jump	leap	just	fair
kudos	acclaim	last	final
lazy	indolent	least	minimum
leave	abandon	leery	cautious
legacy	bequest	legible	readable
licentious	lewd	listen	hear
lithe	supple	little	small
livid	enraged	loathe	abhor
lofty	high	logo	symbol
look	see	loquacious	talkative
lost	misplaced	loving	fond
loyal	true	lucrative	profitable
ludicrous	absurd	luminous	bright
lure	entice	luster	gloss
luxuriant	lush	macabre	gruesome
mad	insane	maelstrom	whirlpool
magnitude	size	malice	spite
margin	edge	meager	scanty
mean	cruel	messy	untidy
middle	centre	misshapen	deformed
moral	ethical	morsel	piece
mundane	ordinary	name	title
narrate	tell	near	close
nefarious	evil	negate	cancel
negligible	insignificant	nepotism	favouritism
new	unused, fresh	noisy	rowdy
noted	well-known	obey	submit
obstinate	stubborn	odyssey	journey

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often	frequently	old	ancient
omen	sign	omnipotent	all-powerful
omniscient	all-knowing	oppress	persecute
opulence	wealth	oral	verbal
orator	speaker	outset	beginning
outside	exterior	ovation	applause
pacify	appease	paltry	scarce
pandemic	widespread	paranormal	supernatural
parcel	package	part	portion
patent	obvious	paucity	scarcity
peddle	sell	pen	write
perhaps	may be	perilous	dangerous
perish	die	persevere	persist
pertinent	relevant	pick	choose
pious	devout	placate	appease
plentiful	abundant	policeman	constable
polite	courteous	poor	destitute
port	harbour	portion	piece
praise	compliment	prank	joke
pretty	beautiful	protect	guard
pull	drag, draw	purloin	steal
push	thrust	putrefy	decay
quack	charlatan	qualms	misgivings
quay	wharf	queen	empress
queue	line	quick	rapid, fast
quiet	peaceful	quill	feather
quip	joke	rare	scarce
rarely	seldom	rash	hasty
read	peruse	ready	alert
real	genuine	reap	harvest
rebuke	reprimand	receptacle	container
reckless	rash	recollect	remember
rectify	correct	recur	repeat

red	ruddy	reek	smell
regal	royal	rein	curb
rejoice	celebrate	relic	antique
remain	stay	remedial	corrective
remember	recollect	remnant	residue
remorse	guilt	renown	fame
replenish	refill	retain	keep
revenue	income	rich	wealthy
rift	split	riot	revolt
roam	wander	robust	vigorous
rostrum	podium	rough	coarse
round	circular	rude	impolite
rue	regret	rule	govern
ruse	trick	rustic	rural
sack	pillage	sad	unhappy
safe	secure	saga	story
sanction	approval	saturate	soak
savour	relish	scant	inadequate
scared	frightened	scatter	disperse
schism	rift	scion	offspring
scorn	disdain	sear	burn
secede	withdraw	seclusion	solitude
seduce	lure	seldom	rarely
semblance	likeness	separate	sever
serene	peaceful	sham	pretense
sheen	luster	short	brief
shorten	abbreviate	show	exhibit
shun	avoid	sibling	brother / sister
sick	ill	siege	blockage
silent	quiet	silly	foolish
simple	easy	sinister	evil
site	location	skeptical	doubtful
slay	kill	sleepy	drowsy

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slim	slender	sloth	laziness
smart	intelligent	smell	scent
smite	strike	snare	trap
snub	ignore	sovereign	monarch
specimen	sample	squalid	filthy
squander	waste	static	inactive
steed	horse	stern	strict
stick	adhere	stifle	suppress
stimulate	excite	stingy	miserly
stop	halt	strange	odd
strife	conflict	strive	endeavour
strong	powerful	student	pupil
studious	diligent	style	fashion
subdue	conquer	submit	yield
subside	diminish	succulent	juicy
superb	excellent	surmount	overcome
surprise	astonishment	surrender	yield
surround	encircle	susceptible	vulnerable
sustenance	food	swamp	marsh
taint	pollute	talk	conversation
talon	claw	tangible	touchable
tarnish	taint	taut	tight
teach	educate	teacher	instructor
tedious	boring	tempest	storm
tempo	speed	tempt	entice
tenet	doctrine	tepid	lukewarm
terse	concise	tested	tried
thief	burglar	thin	lean
thrive	prosper	throng	crowd
titillate	arouse	titular	figurehead
toil	drudgery	top	summit
trail	path	tranquillise	calm
transient	temporary	transitory	fleeting

traverse	cross	trek	journey
trick	hoax	trite	commonplace
trust	believe	try	attempt
twain	two	tyrannical	dictatorial
ubiquitous	omnipresent	ulterior	hidden, covert
unassuming	modest	uncanny	mysterious
under	beneath	undermine	weaken
underscore	emphasise	understand	comprehend
unduly	excessive	unison	together
usually	generally	utter	complete
vacant	empty	vacillate	waver
vain	unsuccessful	valiant	brave
value	worth	vanish	disappear
vanquish	conquer	vehement	adamant
vendetta	feud	venom	poison
venue	location	verbose	wordy
verdict	decision	veto	reject
vex	annoy	vicious	evil, cruel
victory	triumph	vie	compete
vilify	defame	virile	manly, strong
vital	necessary	vacation	holiday
vocation	occupation	vogue	fashion
volatile	unstable	vulgarity	obscenity
vulnerable	susceptible	wager	bet
want	need	watch	look
wages	salary	waive	forgo
wallow	indulge	weak	feeble
wet	damp	whet	stimulate
whole	entire	wither	shrivel
wonder	amazement	woo	court
wrath	anger, fury	wrest	snatch
writ	summons	yearly	annually
young	youthful		

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HOMONYMS

(A Homonym is a word that is spelt the same or sounds the same or almost the same as example word but is different in meaning.)

air	heir	ail	ale
allowed	aloud	arc	ark
ate	eight	bad	bade
bail	bale	bald	bawled
ball	bawl	bare	bear
beach	beech	bean	been
bear	bare	beat	beet
bee	be	beet	beat
bell	belle	berry	bury
birth	berth	blue	blew
boar	bore	board	bored
bough	bow	bow	bough
boy	buoy	brake	break
buy	by/bye	ceiling	sealing
cell	sell	cent	sent
cheap	cheep	check	cheque
coarse	course	cord	chord
dear	deer	die	dye
dun	done	dye	die
ewe	you	eye	I
fair	fare	feat	feet
find	finned	flea	flee
flew	flu	flour	flower
flower	flour	fool	full
fore	four	forth	fourth
foul	fowl	fur	fir
gait	gate	grate	great
groan	grown	hair	hare
hall	haul	heal	heel

hear	here	heard	herd
here	hear	higher	hire
him	hymn	hole	whole
hour	our	idle	idol
isle	aisle	key	quay
knead	need	knew	new
knight	night	knot	not
know	no	lain	lane
lead	led	leak	leek
lessen	lesson	loan	lone
made	maid	mail	male
main	mane	meat	meet
medal	meddle	missed	mist
muscle	mussel	none	nun
oar	ore	one	won
pail	pale	pain	pane
pair	pear	patience	patients
peace	piece	peal	peel
plain	plane	plane	plain
pore	pour	practice	practise
praise	prays	pray	prey
principal	principle	profit	prophet
rain	reign	rap	wrap
read	reed	read	red
right	write	ring	wring
road	rode	role	roll
root	route	rose	rows
sale	sail	scene	seen
sea	see	seam	seem
sew	sow	sight	site
soar	sore	sole	soul
son	sun	soot	suit
stair	stare	stake	steak

steal	steel	stile	style
suite	sweet	tail	tale
tear	tier	their	there
threw	through	throne	thrown
tide	tied	to	two
told	toll	too	to, two
towed	toad	urn	earn
vain	vein	vale	veil
vein	vane, vain	waist	waste
wait	weight	way	weigh
weak	week	wear	where
whole	hole	witch	which
wood	would	write	right
yoke	yolk	yore	your

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Abbreviations and Acronyms are similar to each other as they both are short forms of longer words; however they are two different parts of the English language. They are used mainly to save space.

Abbreviations are shortened words which are still pronounced originally. Mr Hall is pronounced Mister Hall and not M-R Hall. This rule is only relaxed when the abbreviation is of a word taken from another language like *e.g.* which actually stands for *exempli gratia*. In this case, we say the meaning of the phrase instead of the phrase it self - *for example* instead of *exempli gratia*.

Acronyms, on the other hand, are shortened versions of phrases that are most often the names of something. They are pronounced as their short forms rather than their actual full form. NATO is pronounced "nei-toe" and not as *North Atlantic Treaty Organisation*. Acronyms are also pronounced by the individual alphabet like with FBI, etc.

Latin Abbreviations

Abbr.	Full form	Meaning	Use
A.D.	Anno Domini	In the year of our Lord (meaning: Jesus Christ)	Used to show years after the birth of Christ: 1066 A.D. or A.D. 1066. The Political Correctness term for those who do not want to refer to Christ is CE. (Common Era). B.C. (Before Christ) equally has the Political Correctness term BCE. (Before the Common Era).
a.m	Ante Meridiem	Before midday	Used for the hours after midnight and before noon - 10a.m, 2a.m
c. / ca.	Circa	Approximately	Used for years/months when not sure of exact date - ca. 1500

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C.V	Curriculum Vitae	Course of Life	A document summarising a person's education and experience.
e.g.	Exempli gratia	For example	To give an example or instance of something - different cities, e.g. New York, Delhi, Beijing etc.
et al.	Et Alii	And others	Used to show that there are more names that are unmentioned on a list - Tom, Jane, Jack et al.
etc.	Et cetera	And other things	Used to signify similar things that are unmentioned on a list - milk, cheese, yoghurt etc.
i.e.	Id est	In other words / That is	Used in sentences to rephrase or show a connection between clauses - Jack, i.e. the most popular senior, likes Beth.
p.a	Per Annum	Through the year	Used to show something in the manner of 'yearly' - He earns 2 million dollars p.a.
p.m	Post meridiem	After midday	Used to show the hours after midday and before midnight - 10p.m, 2p.m
PS:	Post Scriptum	A supplement after the main text	Used mainly in letters to add something extra after the signoff - Yours Shirley, P.S - I'll be in Canada for 2 weeks.
R.I.P	Requiescat in pace	May he/she rest in peace	Used as a prayer for someone who has died - May Janet R.I.P.
Stat	Statim	Immediately	Used most often in the medical fields - This man needs a bypass stat.

General Abbreviations

Abbr.	Meaning	Use
Dr	Doctor	Dr Smith was also invited.
Gen.	General (army)	Gen. Lee retreated to the south-west..
Hon.	Honourable	Hon. Jamees Smith gave away the prizes.
Mr	Mister	Mr Hall is in office at the moment.
Mrs	Mistress	Mrs Hall is waiting for her car.
Ms	Miss	Ms Jane Watson is here to see you.
No.	Numero	House No. 9 = House Number 9
Prof.	Professor	Prof. Jain is a popular faculty in college.
Rev.	Reverend (clergyman)	Rev. Jones blessed the house today.
Sr. / Jr.	Senior / Junior (father / son)	Mr Bates Sr. and Mr Bates Jr. were inspecting the grounds.
St.	Saint	St. Patrick is one of the most popular Irish saints.

Abbreviations Of The Most Important Grammar Terms

Abbreviation	Meaning	Abbreviation	Meaning
abbr(ev).	Abbreviation	poss.	Possessive
adj.	Adjective	p.p.	Past Participle
adv.	Adverb	prep.	Preposition
comp.	Comparative	pron.	Pronoun
conj.	Conjunction	p.t.	Past Tense
dim.	Diminutive	sing.	Singular
fem.	Feminine	sl.	Slang
intr.	Intransitive	subj.	Subject(ive)
masc.	Masculine	sup.	Superlative
n.	Noun	tr.	Transitive
obj.	Objective	var.	Variant
pl.	Plural	vb.	Verb

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Acronyms

Acronym	Full Form	What It Is
ATM	Automated Teller Machine	A computerised cash dispenser
CD	Compact Disk	A compact storage disk, used for storing music and data.
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic Acid	The molecule in any living being that contains all the genetic data of the living being.
DVD	Digital Versatile Disk	A compact optical storage disk, used for storing videos and data.
FAQ	Frequently Asked Questions	A common section in most sites containing common queries from the visitors.
HR	Human Resources	The workforce of any organisation can also refer to the department that is in charge of human resources.
LCD	Liquid Crystal Display	A type of video display panel or screen.
LED	Light Emitting Diode	A glowing light source used in indicators.
PC	Personal Computer	A computer whose size, price and capabilities are useful for individual use.
RAM	Random Access Memory	A way or disk to store data on a computer
SONAR	Sound Navigation And Ranging	A technique that uses echoes to navigate or communicate usually used in submarines.

USP	Unique Selling Proposition	A term used to show how one product or service is different and unique from another.
VIP	Very Important Person	A person who gets special privileges due to their status or importance.
WWW	World Wide Web	Interlinked web documents accessed by the internet

Acronyms Of Names

Acronym	Full Form	What It Is
AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome	A disease of the immune system caused by the HIV.
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations	A political and economic organisation based on geographical location.
CERN	Conseil Européen pour la Recherche Nucléaire	A “European Organisation for Nuclear Research” organisation that operates the largest particle physics laboratory
ESA	European Space Agency	European government agency handling space research.
FIFA	Federation Internationale de Football Association	Organisation in charge of international association football.
IELTS	International English Language Testing System	An organisation that tests language abilities and provides certificates about it.
InterPol	International Criminal Police Organisation.	An international police cooperation across countries.

NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration	An American government agency handling space research.
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome	A respiratory disease in humans which is fatal.
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language	An organisation that tests language abilities and provides certificates about it.
UN	United Nations	An international organisation for inter-country cooperation.
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Education Fund	A UN program that provides humanitarian help to children.
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association	A worldwide association that helps to put Christian principles into action.
HIV	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus	The virus that causes AIDS.

Acronyms Of Education

Acronym	Full Form
B.A	Bachelor of Arts
B.S(c)	Bachelor of Science
DC	Doctor of Chiropractic
M.A	Master of Arts
M.B.A	Master of Business Administration
MBBS	Medicinae Baccalaureus, Baccalaureus Chirurgiae - Bachelor of Medicine, Bachelor of Surgery
MD	Medicinae Doctor - Doctor of Medicine
PhD	Philosophiae Doctor - Doctorate of Philosophy
JD	Juris Doctor

Alphabetic List Of Common Abbreviations And Acronyms

Abbreviations have become an inalienable part of our lives. In other words, almost anything you want to do will require you to know several basic abbreviations. Learn at least those ones which are printed in "**bold**" letters. Here are some common abbreviations and their meanings. (Note: Abbreviations might differ by capitalisation or punctuation, which can be perplexing) This list will ensure you will no longer confuse SEC (Securities Exchange Commission) with sec (seconds).

Abbr.	Meaning
A.B.	Artium Baccalaureus [Bachelor of Arts]
abbr.	abbreviation(s), abbreviated
Acad.	Academy
A.D.	anno Domini [in the year of the Lord]
alt.	altitude
A.M.	ante meridiem [before noon]
AM	amplitude modulation
Assn.	Association
at. no.	atomic number
at. wt.	atomic weight
Aug.	August
Ave. / Av.	Avenue
AWOL	absent without leave
b.	born, born in
B.A.	Bachelor of Arts
B.C.	Before Christ
BCE	Political Correctness term for B.C.
b.p.	boiling point
B.S.	Bachelor of Science
Btu	British thermal unit(s)
Bvld.	Boulevard
C	Celsius (centigrade)

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c.	circa [about]
cal	calorie(s)
Capt.	Captain
CE	Political Correctness term for A.D.
cent.	century, centuries
cm	centimetre(s)
co.	county
Col.	Colonel; Colossians
Comdr.	Commander
Corp.	Corporation
Cpl.	Corporal
cu	cubic
d.	died, died in
D.C.	District of Columbia [as in Washington D. C.]
Dec.	December
dept.	department
dist.	district
div.	division
E	east, eastern
ed.	edited, edition, editor(s)
est.	established; estimated
et al.	et alii [and others]
etc.	et cetera, and so on, and so forth
F	Fahrenheit (used by English-speaking people)
Feb.	February
fl.	floruit [flourished]
fl oz	fluid ounce(s)
FM	frequency modulation
ft	foot, feet
gal.	gallon(s)
Gen.	General, Genesis
GMT	Greenwich mean time
GNP	gross national product

GOP	Grand Old Party (Republican Party)
gov.	governor
grad.	graduated, graduated at
h	hour(s)
Hon.	the Honourable
hr	hour(s)
i.e.	id est [that is]
in.	inch(es)
inc.	incorporated
Inst.	Institute, Institution
IRA	Irish Republican Army
IRS	Internal Revenue Service
Jan.	January
K	Kelvin
kg	kilogramme(s)
km	kilometre(s)
£	libra [pound], librae [pounds] money unit
l, L	litre
lat.	latitude; Lat.: Latin [language of the Roman Empire]
lb	libra [pound], librae [pounds] weight unit
Lib.	Library
Ln	Lane
long.	longitude
Lt.	Lieutenant
Ltd.	Limited
m	metre(s)
M	minute(s)
M.D.	Medicinae Doctor [Doctor of Medicine]
mg	milligramme(s)
mi	mile(s)
min	minute(s)
mm	millimetre(s)
mph	miles per hour

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Mr	Mister (always abbreviated)
Mrs	Mistress (always abbreviated)
Ms	Miss
Msgr	Monsignor
mt.	Mount, Mountain
mts.	mountains
Mus.	Museum
N	north; Newton(s)
NAACP	National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NE	northeast
No.	numero = number
Nov.	November
OAS	Organisation of American States
Oct.	October
Op.	Opus [work]
oz	ounce(s)
pl.	plural
P.M.	post meridiem [after noon]
PC.	political correctness [political tool to silence opponents]
pop.	population
PS.	post scriptum
pseud.	pseudonym
pt.	part(s)
pt	pint(s)
pub.	published; publisher
qt	quart(s)
Rev.	Revelation; the Reverend
Rd.	Road
rev.	revised
R.N.	registered nurse
rpm	revolution(s) or round(s) per minute
RR	railroad

S	south
s	second(s)
SEATO	Southeast Asia Treaty Organisation
SEC	Securities and Exchange Commission
sec	second(s); secant
Sept.	September
Ser.	Series
Sgt.	Sergeant
Sq	square
SSR	Soviet Socialist Republic
St.	Street, Saint
U.K.	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
uninc.	unincorporated
UN	United Nations Organisation
Univ.	University
U.S.	United States
USA	United States of America
USAF	United States Air Force
USCG	United States Coast Guard
USMC	United States Marine Corps
USN	United States Navy
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
VFW	Veterans of Foreign Wars
VISTA	Volunteers in Service to America
Vol.	volume(s)
vs.	versus
W	west; watt(s)
WHO	World Health Organisation
wt.	weight
yd	yard(s)
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association

States Of The United States

The 50 states of the United States have these abbreviations:

Alabama - AL	Louisiana - LA	Ohio - OH
Alaska - AK	Maine - ME	Oklahoma - OK
Arizona - AZ	Maryland - MD	Oregon - OR
Arkansas - AR	Massachusetts - MA	Pennsylvania - PA
California - CA	Michigan - MI	Rhode Island - RI
Colorado - CO	Minnesota - MN	South Carolina - SC
Connecticut - CT	Mississippi - MS	South Dakota - SD
Delaware - DE	Missouri - MO	Tennessee - TN
Florida - FL	Montana - MT	Texas - TX
Georgia - GA	Nebraska - NE	Utah - UT
Hawaii - HI	Nevada - NV	Vermont - VT
Idaho - ID	New Hampshire - NH	Virginia - VA
Illinois - IL	New Jersey - NJ	Washington - WA
Indiana - IN	New Mexico - NM	West Virginia - WV
Iowa - IA	New York - NY	Wisconsin - WI
Kansas - KS	North Carolina - NC	Wyoming - WY
Kentucky - KY	North Dakota - ND	

POLITICAL CORRECTNESS,

or **PC** in short, is about feelings of other people. This concept, which is unknown in Asia, has been used in western countries since the early 1970s. Behind it should stand the idea of being treated equally, fairly and with dignity by using words and behaviour which will not offend any group of people. Some older words are considered unkind, such as negro, nigger, homo(sexual), etc. They have now been replaced by other words that are supposed to be not offensive. Although Political Correctness terms were invented for an honourable cause, they have mutated into the opposite since the late 1980s. Politically correct words are used nowadays by politicians, the media and the so-called elite in western countries, to show differences (race, gender, sexual orientation, mental beliefs, religion, or physical disability, etc.) between people or groups in a non-offensive way.

As women in western countries fought to have the same rights as men since the 20th century, certain words such as "policeman", "postman", "chairman", and "mankind" have developed alternative PC forms, or gender-neutral titles such as "police officer", "letter carrier", "chairperson" or "chair", and "humankind". Although 'homosexual' and "bisexual" are terms that are seen as being perfectly fine, they are now being replaced by LGBT, an acronym that stands for "lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender".

The overall terms 'handicapped' and 'disabled' are no longer considered appropriate to describe people but we have to talk now about people who have "special needs". People who are blind or deaf may be referred to as "vision impaired" and "hearing impaired" ("hearing impaired" can also refer to someone who is hard of hearing, has partial hearing, and "vision impaired" can also refer to someone who has partial vision). People who cannot speak are never "dumb" but "mute" or "without speech".

Among PC terms, we find also abbreviations and acronyms such as B.C., A.D., and GMT. Political Correctness propaganda tries to replace them for BCE, CE, or UTC for the simple reason that the old words emphasise western values that could perhaps offend the feelings of others. Lots of PC words are more ridiculous than useful as they propagate the political viewpoint of so-called liberal oriented people. "Liberal" itself is a PC term used by Socialists for themselves as they do not want to be identified and called as such since Socialism has failed with the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991. Many examples of PC terms are being challenged. For example, someone who is very short might be described as "vertically challenged". "Bad people" are "people in trouble with the law", and "juvenile delinquents" are "children at risk" now.

Political Correctness has been perverted into a fight of the political left (socialist, internationalist, globalist Utopists) against the political right (traditionalists who want to protect their nation and homeland), undermining the right of free speech by outcasting, peer pressure or otherwise socially punishing anyone who acts against the PC rules of the socialist elite. And if the term "African American" is really better than "negro" (Latin for dark or black) or "coloured" is still a matter of dispute as African American (or worse: Afro-American) implies that the person in question is not a "real American", which would be rightfully seen as offensive by any such person. Advice: Ask how you may call a person. Be polite and friendly but speak up for your beliefs and what you think is just!

SOUND WORDS

There are three main kinds of sound words: *Fillers*, *Interjections* and so-called *Onomatopoeias*, which is a sound made chiefly by humans, animals or things.

A *Filler* is a sound or word that is spoken in conversation by one participant to signal to others that he/she has paused to think but has not yet finished speaking. In English, the most common filler sounds are uh [ʌ/], er /ɜ:/, and um [ʌm]. Among youths, the fillers "like", "y'know", "I mean", "so", "actually", "basically", and "right" are among the more prevalent. US-President Ronald Reagan was famous for beginning his answers to questions with "Well...".

An *Interjection* or *Exclamation* may be a word used to express an emotion or sentiment on the part of the speaker (although most Interjections have clear definitions). Filled pauses such as *uh*, *er*, *um* are also considered Interjections. Interjections are often placed at the beginning of a sentence.

An Interjection is sometimes expressed as a single word or non-sentence phrase, followed by a punctuation mark. The isolated usage of an interjection does not represent a complete sentence in conventional English writing. Thus, in formal writing, the interjection will be incorporated into a larger sentence clause.

Examples Of Interjections In English

Conventions like *Hi*, *Bye* and *Goodbye* are Interjections, as are exclamations like *Cheers!* and *Hurrah!* or *Hooray!* In fact, like a Noun or a Pronoun, they are very often characterised by exclamation marks depending on the stress of the attitude or the force of the emotion they are expressing. *Well* (a short form of "that is well") can also be used as an interjection: "*Well! That's great!*" or "*Well, don't worry.*" Much profanity takes the form of interjections. Some linguists consider the words *yes*, *no*, *amen* and *okay* also as interjections, since they have no syntactical connexion with other words and rather work as sentences themselves. Expressions such as "*Excuse me!*", "*Sorry!*", "*No thank you!*",

"*Oh dear!*", "*Hey that's mine!*", and similar ones often serve as interjections. Interjections can be phrases or even sentences, as well as words, such as "*Oh!*" "*Pooh!*" or "*Wow!*". Several English Interjections contain sounds that do not (or very rarely) exist in regular English phonological inventory. For example: *Ahem!* ("attention!") may contain a glottal stop [a 'hem] or a guttural *h* [h], which sounds a bit like the *h* in the Chinese word *hua* (flower) but does not occur with other English words. *Gah!* ("Gah, there's nothing to do!") also ends with a strong *h* as in *hua* such as *Ugh* [ʌx] ("disgusting!"). *Oops!* is an Interjection made in response to the recognition of a minor mistake, usually written as "*Oops!*" or "*Whoops!*". *Psst!* ("here!"), is a word of consonants and only one, *Tut-tut* [tʌt tʌt] ("shame..."), is made up entirely of dental clicks and is therefore also spelled *tsk-tsk*. *Shh!* ("quiet!") is another entirely consonantal syllable. *Whew*, *shew*, or *phew* [sounds like fiu] ("what a relief!"), a sound pronounced with a strong *puff* of air through the lips. *Yeah* [jɛ] ("yes") ends with the short vowel [ɛ], or in some dialects [æ], neither of which are found at the end of any regular English words.

A **Sound Word** or **Onomatopoeia** is when a word imitates (or sounds like) a natural sound. These words are particularly important to a writer who wants to describe a noise or sound in writing.

Some very common English-language examples include *bang*, *beep*, *hiccup*, *moo*, *splash*, and *zoom*. Machines and their sounds are also often described with *onomatopoeia*, as in *beep-beep* or *honk* for the horn of an automobile, and *vroom* or *brum* for the engine. When someone speaks of a mishap involving an audible arcing of electricity, the word "*zap*" is often used (and has subsequently been expanded and used to describe non-auditory effects generally connoting the same sort of localised but thorough interference or destruction similar to that produced in short-circuit sparking).

Common occurrences of Sound Words include animal noises such as *buzz*, *chirp*, *click*, *crackle*, *meow*, *moo*, *oink*, *roar*, *woof*, or words similar to noises in our environment such as *bang*, *boom*, *crash*, *shh* and *squelch*. *Cuckoo* is a good example of an *onomatopoeic name*, that means, a name given to a kind of animal, because it used to make a sound like this. The most famous things named after their sounds are *bells*, *clocks*, *gongs*, *drum*, *flip-flops*, *jingle bells*, and *rattles*.

Nouns And Verbs That Describe Sounds Of Humans

Babbling or *twaddling* – sound that a baby makes when imitating words
Burb – sound of releasing air from the stomach through the mouth.
Cough – a sudden and often repetitively occurring reflex which helps to clear the large breathing passages.
Fart – sound of (often smelly) air released from the anus.
Gargle – sound made by the mouth when the head is tilted back and the liquid bubbled at the back of the mouth.
Gibberish – Gibberish or gobbledygook refer to speech or other use of language that appears to be nonsense
Grumble – to make low dull rumbling sounds to show complaint.
Hawk – to clear the throat noisily in order to get ready to speak
Hiccup or *hik-up* – is a discomfort in which one randomly gasps due to bubbles in the diaphragm. This is not a disease but a temporary discomfort caused by inhaling air during eating.
Hum – is a sound made by humming a wordless tone, often with a melody, with the mouth opened or closed, forcing the sound to emerge from the nose.
Groan – prolonged stressed dull cry expressive of disapproval grief pain, etc.
Grunt – low short gruff noise of pigs; similar human sound of disgust.
Whimper – to cry, sob, or whine softly or intermittently; to complain.
Yawn – to open the mouth wide and take in air deeply, often as in involuntary reaction to sleepiness and boredom.
Whistle – to produce shrill or flutelike sounds through a narrow constriction formed by the lips or teeth, often done with fingers.

**Common Sounds Made By Humans, Animals,
Devices Or Other Things**

Some of these words are used both as Nouns and as Verbs:

Achoo! – a sneeze
Awooga! or *Aooga!* – sound of a car horn

Baa! – the bleat or call of a sheep
Bang! – sound of a shot
Beep! – a high-pitched signal
Beep, beep! – sound of an electronic alarm clock or beeper; sound of a car horn in the 1920s
Boom! – sound of an explosion
Chirp! – call of a bird; also the sound made by rubbing together legs or other body parts, e.g. by a cicada
Choo Choo! – childish word for a train, after the sound of a locomotive whistle.
Cluck! – voice sound made by chicken
Ding ding! or *ring ring!* – the sound of a ringing bell
Fizz! – sound of escaping gas, such as when opening a bottle
Growling, low, guttural vocalisation produced by predatory animals
Hiss! – sound made by a snake
Hoo! – call of an owl
Honk! – sound of a car horn; also used for the call of a goose
Meow! or *Miaou!* or *Miaow!* – cry of a cat
Moo! voice sound of a cow
Oom-pah! – the rhythmical sound of a deep brass instrument in a band
Purr! – a buzzing sound made by many kind of cat signaling comfort.
Quack! – sound or call of a duck.
Ribbit, sound of some Pacific tree frogs or bullfrogs
Roar! – deep, bellowing outburst made by tigers, lions, leopards, etc.
Screech! – high-pitched piercing sound, as made by a screech owl
Splash! – the noise when something falls into water
Tick tock! – sound made by the mechanism of a mechanic clock, such as the word “clock” itself: clock clock!
Vroom! (also brum! or varoom!) – sound of an engine revving up.
Woof! – the bark or call of a dog.
Zip! – sound of a zipper, zip, fly or zip fastener, formerly known as a clasp locker.

Other sound words which are often used in comics: *Ping*, *Plop*, *Slosh*, *Squish*, *Swish*, or *Zap* – sound of an electric overload

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Alphabetic List of animal sounds and bird noises

Alligators – hiss, grunt, roar, quak
Antelopes – snort
Anteaters – hrow,
Badgers – growl
Bats – screech
Bears – growl, groan, moan, roar
Bees – hum, buzz
Beetles – drone, click
Birds – chirrup, chirp, twitter, tweet, sing, whistle
Bitterns – boom
Blackbirds – whistle
Bonobos – chirp, squeal, screech, shriek, squeak, hoot
Calves – bleat
Camels – grunt
Capuchins – chirp, chatter, trill
Cats – mew, purr, meow, miaow, hiss, yowl, screech, caterwaul
Chaffinch – ow
Chicken – cluck, cackle, cock, chirp, crow, screech, peep, cockadoodledoo
Chimpanzees – pant-hoot, grunt, scream, chatter, screech, bark
Chinchillas – squeak
Cicadas – chirp
Cocks, roosters – crow
Cows – moo, low, bawl (calf), bellow
Coyotes – yelp, cry, snarl
Crickets – chirp, creak
Crows – caw, cah
Cuckoos – coo, cuckoo
Curlews – pipe
Deer – bell
Dingos – bark, cry
Dogs – bark, woof, arf, bay, bow-wow, howl, yap
Dolphins – click

Donkeys – bray, hee-haw
Doves – coo-coo
Ducks – quack
Eagles – scream
Elephants – trumpet, roar, moan, rumble
Emus – drum
Falcons – chant
Ferrets – dook
Flies – buzz, hum
Foxes – bark, yelp, simper
Frogs – croak, ribbit, gribbit
Geese – cackle, gobble, hiss, honk, quack
Gibbons – whoop, chirp, screech, wail
Giraffes – bleat
Goats – bleat, baa
Gorillas – hoot, bark, grunt, whine, pock, pant
Grasshoppers – chirp
Guinea pigs – squeak
Hamsters – squeak
Hares – squeak
Hens – cackle, cluck
Hermit crabs – chirp
Hippopotamuses – bellow, rumble, roar, growl
Hogs – grunt, snort
Horses – neigh, snort, whinny, nicker, sputter
Humans – whisper, hum, whistle, cry, scream, sing, talk, moan, laugh, sputter, mimic
other animals, coo
Hummingbirds – hum, twitter
Hyenas – laugh, scream, whoop
Jackals – gecker, howl
Jays – chatter, screech
Kangaroos – chortle
Koalas – scream, bellow, wail
Komodo dragons – growl, snarl, hiss

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Lambs – bleat, baa
Larks – sing, warble
Linnets – chuckle
Lions – roar, growl
Llamas – maw
Magpies – chatter
Mice – squeak and squeal
Monkeys – chatter, gecker, gibber, whoop, screech
Moose – bellow
Mosquitoes – whine
Narwhals – squeal
Nightingales – pipe, sing, warble
Okapis – cough, bellow
Orangutans - Groan, grunt, smooch, wheeze, chirp, squeal, sputter
Ostriches – chirp, bark, hiss, low hum
Owls – hoot, scream, screech, shriek
Oxen – bellow, low
Parrots – mimic a variety of sounds, screech, squawk
Peacocks – scream
Peafowls – scream
Pigs – snort, grunt, squeal, oink
Pigeons – coo
Porpoises – whistle, click
Prairie dogs – bark
Puffins – chirp
Queleas – chatter
Rabbits – squeak, drum, growl (when cornered)
Raccoons – trill
Rats – squeak, eek, brux
Ravens – croak
Rhinoceros – bellow
Robins – chirp
Rooks – caw
Seagulls – scream, squawk, mew

Seals – bark
Sheep – bleat, baa
Snakes – hiss
Sparrows – chirp, twitter
Squirrels – squeak, chatter, click
Stags – bellow
Swallows – twitter, squeal
Swans – cry
Tapirs – whistle, squeak
Tigers – growl, roar, snarl
Thrushes – whistle, sing
Tokay Geckos – croak
Turkeys – gobble
Vervets – chirp, chatter, grunt, bark, coo, sputter
Vultures – scream
Walruses – groan
Whales – sing
Wolves – howl, cry, yell
Wrens – trill, warble
Yaks - low, moan
Zebras – whinny, whoop

LORD HENFIELD'S LIST OF SOUND INTERJECTIONS

English Interjections are words, or just sounds, that have no grammatical meaning, but just signify emotions, such as "Aha" and "Wow" and their meanings. Like the sounds themselves, most of the Interjection can be made stronger by stretching them out, such as "aaaaah!!!" or "awwwww!!". **Oh** is among the most versatile of interjections. Use it to indicate comprehension or acknowledgement (or, with a question mark, a request for verification), to preface direct address ("Oh, Sir!"), as a sign of approximation or example ("Oh, about three days"), or to express emotion or serves as a response to a pain or pleasure. (**Ooh** is a variant useful for the last two purposes.) We can see here short Interjection. Many of them serve as a kind of preposition in the lists after this table. Note: some Interjections have different meanings or different spellings.

Word	Alternative	Translation	Example	Meaning
aah!	aaah, aaaahh	"Help!"	"Aaaah! It's eating my leg!"	Fright, shock. Sometimes it means "ahh" instead.
aha	a-ha	"I understand"	"Aha! So you took the money!"	Understanding, triumph (can also be used as "ahh")
ahem		"Attention, please!"	"Ahem! Swearing is against office policy."	The sound of clearing one's throat. Used to get someone's attention, especially if they apparently forgot that you are there.
ahh	ahhh, ohh	"Ok, I see"	"Ahh, yes, I understand now"	Understanding. Sometimes it means "aaah" or "eh" instead.
ahh	ahhh..	"So relaxing"	"Ahh... This hot tub is amazing"	Relief or relaxation
argh	ugh, arghhh	"Damn!"	"Argh, the car won't work!"	Frustration, annoyance, anger,
aww	aw, awww	"How sweet!"	"Aww, what an adorable puppy"	Shows sentimental approval (also see next entry)
aww	aw, ohh, ahh	"That is too bad"	"Aww, it hit him right in the nuts!"	Feeling sorry or pity for someone
aw	oh	"Come on!"	"Aw, don't be like that!"	Mild disappointment or protest
aye	ay; aye-aye	"yes"	"Aye, Sir!" / "Aye-aye, Sir!"	Military jargon of Scottish origin that denotes agreement.
bah		"Whatever"	"Bah, I never liked him anyways."	Dismissive, annoyed
bleah	bleh, blech	"Yawn...how dull!"	"Ooah, I am falling asleep!"	Implies nausea,.boredom or disappointment.
boo	booh	"That is bad"	"Boo, get off the stage!"	Disapproval, contempt
boo!	booh!	"Scared you!"	I jcame out from the dark and yelled "boo!"	A noise used to scare people by surprise
boo-hoo	boohoo	"I am crying!"	Your internet is slow? Boo-hoo, how sad!	Used, often sarcastically, to imitate crying.
brr	brrrr	"It is cold"	"Brrr, it is minus 20°C outside"	Being cold, shivering
duh	doh, d'oh	"That is dumb"	"Duh, you didn't plug it in."	Expresses annoyance over something stupid or obvious
eek	eeek	"Help!"	"Eeek, a spider!"	Girly scream because she is scared.. Unpleasant surprised,
eep		"Oh no!"	"Eep! I didn't mean to say that!"	Surprise (female)
eh?	huh?, eyh?	"What?"	"Eh? I didn't hear what you said."	Misunderstanding. General question tag: "It is cold, eh?"
eww	ugh, gak, yuck,	"Disgusting"	"Ewww, this apple is rotten"	Expression of disgust , dislike or distaste.
gah		"This is hopeless"	"Gah, I give up"	Exasperation and despair
gee	golly, gosh	"Really?"	"Gee, that's super!"	Surprise, enthusiasm, or just general emphasis.

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Word	Alternative	Translation	Example	Meaning
grr	grrrr	"I am angry"	"Grrr, I shall kick his ass"	Anger, growling. Often used for dogs and other animals.
ha		"I am so great!"	Ha, I won again!	expresses joy or surprise, or perhaps triumph.
hah	heh	"Funny."	"Heh, that's clever"	The first syllable of "haha", when something is just a little funny
haha	hehe, hahaha	"Funny!"	"Haha, that's hilarious!"	Regular laughter.
hm	hmm, hmmm	"I wonder"	"Hmm, I'm not sure about that"	Suggests thinking, hesitation. curiosity, confusion, or skepticism.
humph	harumph	"I do not like this"	"There are kids on my lawn again, humph!"	A snort, to express dislike, disbelief or annoyance.
huh		"Really?"	"Huh, you were right"	Mild, indifferent surprise, "Huh?" expresses disbelief
hurrah	hooray, huzzah	"Let us celebrate!"	"Hurrah, we won!"	General exclamation of joy
ick, ich	ack, yuck, yak	"Disgusting"	"Ick, this milk has gone bad"	Disgust, dislike, dismissal
meh	eh	"I do not know"	"Meh, whatever you think is best"	Indifference
mhm	mmhm, uh-hu	"Yes"	"Do you think so too?" "Mhm"	Agreement, acknowledgement.
mm	mmm, mmh	"Lovely"	"Mmm, this ice cream is delicious"	Pleasure. Sometimes it means "hmm" instead.
muahaha	bwahaha	"I am so evil!"	"I have put salt in the sugar, bwahaha!"	Evil villain's triumphant laugh
mwah	m-wah	"Kiss!"	"Thanks a lot, you're so sweet! Mwah!"	The sound of blowing a kiss
nah	ney, Dutch: nee	"No"	"Want another beer?" "Nah, I'm good"	Informal no
nuh-uh	nuh-hu, nu-huh	"No!" / "Do not!"	"I hit you!" "Nuh-uh!" "Yuh-uh!" "Nuh-uh!"	Childish negation or refusal
oh	ah, uh	"I see"	"Oh, you wanted sugar, not milk."	Realisation. "oh?" is a request for verification
oh-oh		"be careful"	"oh-oh, pouring water into hot oil is risky"	warning that something will have negative repercussions.
olé	voilà	"Olé, that is it"	"Olé / Voila, we did it"	Spanish / French words to celebrate a deft or adroit manoeuvre.
ooh-la-la	oh-lala	"Fancy!"	"A seven layer wedding cake? Ooh-la-la!"	An often ironic (or funny) way indicating that something is fancy or high class. It can have the original French meaning "Sexy!"
ooh	oooh	"Wonderful!"	"Oooh, it's shiny!"	Wonder, amazement (ohhh can also mean ahhh)
oops	oops	"I did not mean to do that"	"Oops, I knocked your cup over"	Being surprised at or acknowledging your own mistakes
ouch	ow, oww, yeow	"That hurts"	"Ouch, I hit my thumb"	Expression of pain
oy	oi, oyh	"Hey, you!"	"Oy! You forgot your wallet!"	Mainly British: Used to get attention, similar to "hey!". Also used disapprovingly ("Oy, you spilled your drink all over me!").
oy	oy vay	"Oh no..."	"The bills are biling up. Oy..."	Mainly Jewish: Used to express self-pity, similar to "woe is me!"
pew	pee-yew	"It stinks!"	"Pew, that smells so gross!"	Used for smelly and foul odours
pff	pffh, pssh, pfft	"That is nothing"	"Pff, I once caught a fish twice that size"	Unimpressed. Expresses disappointment, disdain, or annoyance.
phew	whew, pew, pfui	"That was close!"	"I didn't do my homework, but the teacher didn't check. Phew!"	Expressing fatigue, relief. Phooey, also spelled pfui, (also PU and P.U.) is a signal for disgust, too, and can denote dismissal.

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Word	Alternative	Translation	Example	Meaning
psst	hist	Whispering "Hey, you!"	"Psst. Let's skip the next class!"	Used to quietly get someone's attention, often to tell them a secret.
sheesh	jeez	"I cannot believe this!"	"Sheesh, now he's drunk again"	Exasperation, annoyance (corruption of "Jesus")
shh	hush, shush	"Be quiet"	"Shh, I'm trying to hear what he's saying!"	Used to make someone be quiet
shoo		"Go away"	"Get out of here! Shoo!"	Used to drive away animals or small children
tsk-tsk	tut-tut, tse tse	"Disappointing"	"Tsk-tsk, he is late for work again"	disappointment, contempt (this is a clicking sound.
uh-huh	mhm, uh-hu	"Yes"	"Do you think so too?" "Uh-hu"	Agreement, acknowledgement (easily confused with uh-uh)
uh-oh	oh-oh	"Oh no!"	"Uh-oh, I think the bear is inside the house"	Concerned for indications that something will happen
uh-uh	unh-unh, unh-uh	"No"	"Eat your spinach!" "Uh-uh!"	Refusal, especially if your mouth is full or if you refuse to open it (easily confused with uh-huh)
uhh	uhm, err	"Wait, I am thinking"	"Seven times eight is... uhh... 56"	Indicates a pause in, rather than the end of, a sentence
um ...	eh ..., ah ..., er ...	"Wait, I am thinking"	"um ..., there seem to be a problem"	Indicates that the speaker tries to find the right words
umm	uhh, ummm	"I am hesitant"	"Umm.. Do you really think that's wise?"	Being hesitant or skeptical (usually interchangeable with "uhh")
waah	waaaaah	"I am crying!"	"I don't want you to go! Waaah!"	Used, often sarcastically, for imitating crying or whining.
wee	whee, weee, hui, hue, hwee	"This is fun!"	"Weee! Faster!"	Used by children when doing something fun, and often ironically by adults when something is fun but childish
whoa		"Hold on."	"Whoa, take it easy!"	Originally a sound used to make horses stop. Can suggest caution but also amazement ("whoa, look at the colours!").
wow		"Amazing!"	"Wow, that's incredible!"	Impressed, astonished
yahoo	yippie, woo-hoo	"Let us celebrate!"	"Yippie! We won!"	General exclamation of joy
yay	yeah	"Yes!"	"Yay! We won!"	All-purpose cheer. Approval, congratulations and triumph
yeah	yeeeeeaaah!	"Yes!"	"Yeeeeeaaah! Kick his butt!"	Common slang for "yes", sometimes also used as an interjection.
yee-haw	yeehaw	"I am excited!"	"Let's gather some cattle! Yee-haw!"	Much like "yahoo", but almost always associated with cowboys.
yikes	damn, bloody hell, golly, gosh	"That is a bad surprise."	"I found out I owed £5000 in back taxes. Yikes / Bloody hell!"	Fear and alarm. (<i>yikes</i> and <i>damn</i> is used in North America, <i>golly</i> , <i>gosh</i> , <i>bloody</i> ... is used more in the UK, Australia, New Zealand)
yoo-hoo	yoohoo	"Hey you!"	"Yoo-hoo, sugercup! Come give me a hug!"	The often ironic / comical, seductive call of a woman to get someone's attention
yuh-uh	yuh-hu, yu-huh	"Yes, it is!" / "Did so!"	"I hit you!" "Nuh-uh!" "Yuh-uh!" "Nuh-uh!" ...	Childish affirmation, often used to counter "nuh-uh!" (not to be confused with yoo-hoo).
yuck	ick, ich, blech, bleh, eww, ugh	"Disgusting!"	"Yuck, I wouldn't want to touch that"	Disgust, dislike
yum	yummy, yummie	"Delicious!"	"Yummy, I want more ice cream!"	response to the taste of something or "someone" delicious

Exclamations of Surprise, Admiration, and Disappointment

These kinds of Interjection are important in English as they express our feelings. Read the following small selection of word groups aloud several times, so you have a better chance to recognise them when you hear them.

A. General Exclamations

Welcome, Sir!	Hurry up!
Wonderful	Done wonderfully!
What a surprise!	Certainly!
Hurrah! I have won!	By god's grace!
Thank God!	May God bless you!
Good heavens!	Same to you!
Is it!	How bad!
Really!	How joyful!
Yes, it is!	Beautiful!
O God!	Oh!
Wow! Well done! Bravo!	Quiet, please!
Marvelous!	Thanks!
Excellent!	What a great victory!!
How sweet!	Hello, listen!
How lovely!	Hurry up, please!
How dare you say!	How terrible!
That!	How disgraceful!
Oh dear!	How absurd!
How tragic!	What a shame!
How disgusting!	Beware!
For your good health!	What a pity!

B. Expressing Admiration:

Terrific!	What a grand view!
Ah, super!	That's incredible!
Oh, that's lovely!	Really fantastic!
Oh, that's marvelous!	That's quite fantastic!

Oh, smashing!	I just adore this colour!
Oh, lovely!	It's absolutely splendid!
It's really something!	I've never seen anything like it!
It's really wonderful!	You're the prettiest girl I've ever seen!
Isn't it beautiful?	I've never met anyone so attractive!
Ah, really wonderful!	
Isn't that fantastic!	

C. Expressing Surprise:

What!	Well, I never!
What! Really?	It's very surprising to hear this!
Oh, no!	Fancy seeing you here!
Wow!	How strange!
Impossible!	Surely not!
You don't say!	

D. Saying that you're not surprised:

Hey, nothing new!	I'm not surprised at the news.
I'm not surprised.	What's new in that?
I'm not surprised by the way he behaved.	What's so unusual in that?

E. Expressing Disappointment:

Oh, dear! What fools we were!	That is bonkers / mad / crazy!
Oh, no!	I'd very much hoped that I'd be able to meet him.
Oh, damn!	I had hoped that I'd be able to meet him.
Oh, no! Not again!	I'd very much hoped that I'd get selected this time.
Oh no, what a letdown!	I wish that someone had let me know.
Oh well, never mind.	That's a great pity.
Oh dear! I've spilt the milk.	That's a pity.
Oh, that's a nuisance!	How disappointing!
Oh no, what a shame!	Things always go wrong.
It was an absolute waste of money.	What's the point of giving a party now?
It's a little bit disappointing, isn't it!	
It wasn't as good as I thought it would be.	

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It's a great shame.	I've never been so disappointed in my life.
It's most unfortunate.	But what good will it do?
It's very upsetting that this has happened.	Unfortunately, I couldn't reach there in time.
I'm sorry to hear that.	When I think of it!
I'm disappointed in him.	
I thought he could do better.	

F. Exclamations of joy—for example, when somebody gets a pleasant surprise, he or she might respond with one or several of these very many expressions:

Oh boy	Eureka
Hooray	Oh gee
Whoopee	Gee
Hot dog	Oh glory
Yippee	Oh my goodness
Hallelujah	Yahoo
Nr	Fine
Glory be	Glory
Wow	Happy day
Great	Ooh
Wonderful	That's great
Good	All right
Goody	Boy
Hurrah	Fantastic
Oh	Glory hallelujah
Oh good	Gosh
Whee	Hurrah
Gee whiz	Hot diggety
Oh joy	How wonderful
Yea	I can't believe it
Oh my	My goodness
Golly	Three cheers
Goody-goody	What do you know
Hot damn	Ah
Oh goody	Ain't that something

Hurrah / Hoorah / Hooray	Beautiful
Excellent	By golly
For heaven's sake	By the gollies
Golly moses	Cheers
Great day in the morning	Christmas comin' again
Hey	Congratulations
Hip-hip-hooray	Crazy
Holy cow	Dear me
Holy mackerel	Delightful
Hoo-wee	Do lordy-mamma
Hot ziggety	Don't tell me
How about that	Eldorado
It's great	Far out
Joy	For goodness sakes
Oh great	Gee gosh darn
Oh my gracious	Gee that's sure nice
Oh that's great	Gee, that's wonderful
Oh wow	Geeee-haww
Ooh goody	Glory for me
Out of sight	God bless 'em
Thank goodness	Godlee
Thank you so much	Gol
Whoops	Gol dang, that's nice
Bingo	Golly buster
Bless the lord	Golly darn
Boy am I lucky	Good for me
Boy oh beans	Good god
Boy oh boy	Good golly
Boyee	Good heavens
Good lord	I am so glad
Good shot	I did
Goodness godness agnes	I don't believe it
Goody for me	I like this
Goody gumdrop	I run into a gold mine

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Goody-goody gumdrops	I thank the Lord	Oh isn't it nice	That's the most
Got some happy news	I'll be	Oh joy, oh boy, where do we go from here	That's wonderful
Grand	I'll be damned	Oh look	This is great
Happy days	I'll be doggoned	Oh look what i have	This is the berries
Happy hooray	I'm glad of it	Oh mercy	This must be my day
He might squeal	I'm happy as a dead pig in the sunshine	Oh my gosh	Tremendous
Heavens to betsy	I'm thrilled to death	Oh yeah	Wahoo
Hell yeah man, let's go again	Isn't that nice	Ole	Well i'll be cussed
Hell's fire	Isn't that something	Ooh-wee	Well i'll be damned
Hey, great	Jeeminy christmas	Oo-pee	Well i'll be switched
Hip-hurrah, boys	Jesus christ	Peachy purple	What a surprise
Hokey man	Jiminy crickets	Praise be	Whew
Holy gee	Joy and ecstasy	Raw	Who'd have thought it
Holy scud catfish	Joy, joy	Really	Whoo boy
Hoo-hee	Jumping jehosaphat	Ship ahoy	Whoop
Hooraw	Jumping jelly-beans	Swell	Whoo-wee
Hooray for our side	Kontaka	Woo	Yeee-ah
Hot diggety damn	Look what we got	Woo-ee	Yes
Hot diggety dog	Lovely	Wow-ee	Yooro
Hot dikkety	Man alive	Wowie	You don't mean it
Hot dikkety hot	Man, i'm having a good time	Ya-ho	You're kidding
How 'bout that	Man / man man	Ye gods	You're not kidding, are you
How nice	Terrific	Yea man	Yow
My oh my	Thank god	Yeah	Ziggety-damn
Neat	Thank god i get a good enjoy	Yeah man	I say
No foolin'	Thank the lord		
Now you're talking	Thank you		
Oh boys	Thank you, jesus		
Oh brother	That sure was a humdinger		
Oh gosh	That-a-baby		
Oh happiness	That's all right		
Oh hell	That's just what i needed		
Oh how wonderful	That's neat		
Oh i'm so glad	That's swell		

COMMON EXPRESSIONS, COLLOQUIAL SPEECH AND SLANG

The following words used in everyday language in the UK, Australia and New Zealand, but people from the United States also use many of them.

Warning: These lists are here for you to understand what we say. Please **do not** use the words marked with * as many of them are rude or even insulting:

ace - brilliant, which means very good

all right? - hello, how are you?

*arse** - your bottom or nasty person (in north america also ass)

*barmy** - mad or crazy

beastly - really unpleasant or nasty

bite your arm off - overly excited to get something

blimey - an exclamation of surprise

blinding - fantastic

blinkered - narrow- minded

*bloody** - used to emphasise almost anything, also bleeding, blooming or frigging

blow me - means something like i am so surprised you could knock me over just by blowing, "knock me down with a feather"

bob's your uncle - that's it!

*bogey** / *bogy** / *booger** - a piece of dried mucus discharged from the nose, something that annoys, worries, or has an evil spirit

*bollocks** - it literally means testicles but describes something that is no good

bomb - really expensive, really well, or really fast

bonkers - mad, crazy

bottle - courage

brill - short for "brilliant"; cool

budge up - move over and make some room

bugger - a mild curse word

bugger all - nothing

bum arse** - the bottom on which you sit

bung - throw it, bribe

camp - gay or effeminate behaviour

camp it up - dress in drag

cheeky - flippant

cheerio - friendly way of saying goodbye

cheers - another word for thanks

to be cheesed off - to be upset

*cobblers** - rubbish

*cock up** - a mistake

cor - expression of surprise

cracking - the best

crikey - expression of surprise

to be daft / *to be dim* - to be stupid

to diddle - to rip someone off

a do - a party

doddle - cinch, easy

dodgy - not to be trusted

*dog's bollocks** - really fantastic

Excuse me! - is what you say when you burp or fart in public

to be honking - being sick, throwing up

knock up - wake someone up

leg it - run, run for it

mate - friend

a mug - a gullible person

to be naff - uncool

to nick / *to pinch* / *to filch* / *to knock off* - to steal

nope! / *ney!* - no!

not my cup of tea - not to my liking

nowt - nothing (used in the north of the UK)

*nut** - to head butt someone

off your trolley - bonkers, crazy, mad

on about - talking about

owt - anything (used in the north of the UK)

Pardon me! - is what you say when you burp or fart in public

to be peanuts - cheap

to be posh - high class

to be potty - a little mad or looney

*a prat** - mildly insulting name for a silly or stupid person

quite - absolutely

the read - your major at university or college

right - very

to ring - calling someone on the phone

rubbish - trash, garbage, nonsense

rugger - nickname for rugby

to be shirty - to be bad or quick tempered

you look smart - you are dressed very nicely

to be smashing - to be terrific

snog - making out, getting off

get it sorted - fixed a problem

stonking - huge

swotting - to study hard, cram

ta - another word for thanks

takes the biscuit / takes the cake - it does out-do everything else,

a twit / a nitwit - a stupid person

waffle - to talk on and on about nothing

watcha - hi

wobbler - tantrum

to be wonky - to be wobbly, shaky or unstable

to be zonked - exhausted

Traditional expressions of surprise used by the elderly:

gosh, interjection used for showing surprise or a little annoyance

crikey, British informal interjection, expresses surprise or anger

golly, informal interjection, used for expressing surprise or slight worry

blast - an exclamation of surprise

bless my soul / bless me / well I'm blessed - used for showing surprise

by God / gum / Jove etc. - emphasises speech or expresses surprise

for the love of God - used when you are very angry or shocked

good Lord - an exclamation of surprise

as I live and breathe - used for expressing surprise

by gum - used for showing surprise or pleasure

cripes - informal interjection, used for expressing surprise or anger

crumbs - British informal interjection, used for expressing surprise

doggone - American informal Adjective for annoyance or surprise

gee whiz - American interjection, used for expressing a reaction such as surprise or admiration

gracious - interjection, used for expressing surprise

hard lines - bad luck / hard luck

hell's bells / hell's teeth - used for showing anger or great surprise

strewth - British interjection, used for expressing surprise, or for emphasising what you have to say

ye gods - used for showing surprise or annoyance

yikes - informal interjection, expresses surprise or slight fear

Some general phrases

This is a collection of entire phrases gives you a pretty good idea what we say in almost every situation and occasion. It is not that what you know as "standard English" in your textbooks but is the "real English" that is spoken by almost everyone! So you should get into it!

hi / hiya! - hallo, hello!

greetings! - Hallo

howaya? - how are you?

how's things? / how are things? - how are you?

hallo stranger! - long time no see!

hold on a sec / hang on a sec / wait on a sec - wait a second

hold on a minute / hang on a minute - wait on a minute

just a sec / minute / moment / hang about - just a moment

won't be long - it will not take a long time, please wait

see ya - see you

see ya later / see you in a bit / see you in a wee bit - see you later

I am going to take a wee walk - I will go out for a little walk

cheers / tara / toodleoo / bye / bye bye - good bye

cheers / thanks / ta - short for thank you
here you are / here we go - says someone who gives you something
oh, here we go - says someone who apparently accepts something
you are pulling my leg / you are having me on / you must be joking / you are kidding / pull the other one / come off it / get away - I don't believe it, you are making a joke
no way! / by no means! / it is not on! / it is unheard of! / it is out of the question! - no!
ace! / fab! / fabulous! / brill! / brilliant! / shit hot! / super! / amazing! / gobsmacking! / a killer! / sound! / smashing! super dooper! / sensational! / bloody marvellous! a knock out!*
- great!
it is the best thing since sliced bread! - it is absolutely great!
it is all the rage / it is the cat's whiskers! - it simply is great!
it is just what the doctor ordered - it is exactly what I need
better than a slap in the face with a wet fish - it is better than noting
we had a hell of a good time - we had a very good time
chop chop / look sharp / chivvy along - hurry up
move yourself / get a move on / get your arse into gear / move your arse** - get moving
step on it / put your foot down / pull your finger out - drive faster
to chat someone up - to begin to speak to someone
to be forward - to begin to speak to someone
to make a pass at someone - to try to get someone interested in you
to make eyes at someone - to try to get someone interested in you
to fancy someone - to like someone much
to have the hots for someone - to like someone sexually
to pick someone up - to get acquainted to someone
to have a lump in your throat - to be too shy to speak up
to be like a cat on hot bricks - to be nervous before speaking
to pull yourself together - to employ your courage
two is company, three is a crowd - when two people want to be alone, the third person is superfluous
she is lovey dovey - she is sweet, romantic, mawish and kitschy
she is soppy - she is over-sweet and over-romantic
she is fit / he is fit - (s)he looks good
he is a hunk - he looks very masculine
to go out with someone - having an intimate relationship

to fall for someone - to fall in love with someone
to have a one-night stand - to have a sexual affair for one night
to smooch - to dance or kiss intently and very closely
just for kicks / just for the hell of it - just for fun
absence makes the heart grow fonder - distance increases love
out of sight is out of mind - distance makes people forget you
to take the piss / mickey out of someone* - to make fun of someone
to get at someone - to get someone angry
to pick on someone - to ridicule someone
*to be knackered / shagged / pooped / fucked** - to be tired out
to have had it - to be fed up
to feel drowsy - to feel sleepy
to snooze / to have a snooze / to have forty winks / to nod off / to have a kip - to have a nap, to take a nap
I zonked out / I was out like a light - I fell asleep instantly
to be dead to the world / to sleep like a baby / to sleep like a log / to be in the land of nod - to have a very deep and long sleep
to be under the thumb - to be submissive
a sugar daddy - an elder and rich lover
a toyboy - a younger lover for an elder woman
to stand someone up - not turning up to an appointment or a date
to fall out with someone - to end a friendship or relationship
to tell someone off - to criticise someone
to give someone a bullocking - to criticise or blame someone harshly
to smack someone / to bash someone - to hit or beat someone
to whack / wallop / thump someone - to beat up someone
to punch someone - to strike someone's chin with the fist
a scrap - a brawl, a punch-up
to smash someone's head in - a violent beating
to beat someone's brain out - a violent beating
to beat someone up / to hammer someone - a very violent beating
to kick the shit out of someone* - to beat someone almost to death
he is scared out of his wits - to be extremely frightened
a granny basher - robber who violently beats up elderly people

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paki basher - someone who is violent against Asians (Pakistani)
queer basher - someone who is violent against homosexuals
she cries her heart / eyes out - she cries excessively
to sob - to cry excessively
to get nicked - to get arrested by the police
to get done - to get sentenced by the court of law
to get sent down - to go to prison
to be behind bars - to serve a prison sentence
to do time / to do porridge - to serve a prison sentence
to snuff it / to kick the bucket / to pop off - to die
to be pushing up the daisies / to be as dead as a dodo / to be as dead as a doornail - to be absolutely dead

The following lists show you slang words (and occasionally curse words) according to certain topics

The Weather

is usually described as bad in the British Isles. Although the climate is mild and moderate, only about 20% of all days in the year would be considered as "nice and sunny". The other days are grey, rainy, windy or even stormy. No wonder that we have more expressions for bad weather:

brass monkey weather - freezing cold
cold enough to freeze the balls of a brass monkey - very cold
it is raining cats and dogs - heavy rain
it is pissing (it) down - heavy rain
it is pelting down - heavy showers
it is chucking (it) down - heavy rain
it is coming down in buckets - it is raining like from buckets
to be soaking wet through - got wet
to be pissed wet through - got wet
to be wet through - got wet
to be drenched to the skin - got wet to the skin

it is a scorcher - a very hot day
pea soup - thick fog and mist
petting rain - cloudburst = sudden heavy rain
broolly - umbrella
wellies - wellingtons = rubberboots
mac - macintosh = raincoat made of rubber or plastic
kagoul - wind jacket

Money

concerns everyone just like the weather

the folding stuff - banknotes
the green stuff - 100 pound notes
a tenner - ten pounds
a score - twenty pounds
a fiver - five pounds
a quid - one pound
bread / dough / dosh - money
brass - coins
to be skint, to be broke, to be out of cash - having no money anymore
to have no (small) change - having no coins or small banknotes
to have tons / loads of money, to be rolling in it - having lots of money
to be stinking rich / to be filthy rich / to have more money than sense
- to be rich
a gold-digger - a greedy person
to be stingy / mean / tight - not willing to share their money
to cash a cheque - to get cash for a cheque
to bounce a cheque - a cheque that is not accepted by the bank
to pay cash-in-hand - to pay cash instantly
to pay on the nail - to pay cash instantly
to pay through the / your nose - to pay too much

Eating, dining and about food

People say that "France, Germany, Italy and China have a cuisine, Britain and America only have the food" denoting that the cooking skills in the latter regions may not be very good. This is for sure wrong. The food in Anglo-American countries can be as good or bad as anywhere else. In fact, some of the most celebrated chefs of the world come from Britain. If you really want to eat good food and dine well, ask the local people for the right places. But do not be disappointed, to go eating out can cost you 20 times more than to dine in China!

to nosh, to gobble - to eat

to grub, to scoff - to eat in a greedy manner

to eat like a horse, to stuff yourself - eating a lot

to make a pig of yourself - eating a lot

gobbler - someone who eats a lot

to be starving - to be extremely hungry

I could eat a horse - I am extremely hungry

yummy, scrumptious - delicious

spuds - potatoes

veg - vegetables

butty - a sandwich (with butter and other things)

colli - cauliflower

a chippy - a fish and chips shop

chips (international English) = (French) *fries* (American English only)

crisps (international English) = *chips* (American English only)

a take away - food to take home

Drinks

a cuppa - a cup of tea or coffee

a brew - a cup of tea or coffee

to make a brew - to make a tea or coffee

to brew up - to make a tea or coffee

a pop - lemonade

a squash - a kind of fruit syrup to make a kind of lemonade with water

corporation pop - tap water

Going out

Going out in a Western country may be an exciting event, but only when you are well prepared. Minimum age to enter any pub is 18 years, some high class clubs oder night clubs demand a minimum age of 21 or more.

"Face check" is common place. That means before you enter any establishment like a club, the theatre or a classic concert, the door guards check if you are "worthy" to come in. They might check even your ID. Be aware that most of those places demand you to be dressed "formally", that is a suit with dinner jacket (US: tuxedo) and tie, bow tie or American bolo tie when you are male, ladies should wear an evening gown, dress or long qipao. Wearing any kind of casual clothes such as sports or track suits, t-shirts, or jeans let the door guards decide to keep you out! So when you want the real good food, drinks or environment, think about taking a suit or dress abroad.

Outfit

here some general words for the things we wear:

done up like a dog's dinner - to be dressed properly in suit or dress

to be tarded up - (a woman) to be dressed very formally

catsuit - suit with trousers for ladies

boilersuit, jumpersuit - overall

dungarees - trousers with a kind of bib that goes up to the breast

flairs - wide trousers

bell bottoms - trousers with very wide legs

drain pipes - trousers with very tight legs

to have a trim - to have a haircut

blow dry - to dry hair by a hair dryer

bleached hair - to colour hair to white or light yellow

perm - a permanent

to dye your hair - to colour hair

to clip off the split ends - the ends of dry hair are damaged

On a pub tour

happy hour - special (displayed) time in which you might get food or drinks cheaper

boozer - a pub, a public house, a bar

the local - the pub to which people go regularly

pub crawling - going on a pub to pub tour

to boogie, to bop - to dance

to hit the town - going on a pub tour

to let your hair down - an excessive pub tour

to let yourself go - an excessive pub tour

Beer and booze

When ordering a drink, it is not enough to say "I should like a glass of beer". We must be a bit more precise here. Unfortunately, the terms "l" (litre) or "ml" (millilitre) are not used in English-speaking countries. So we have to say "I should like a *pint* of beer" (0.56 l) or "... a *half pint* of beer (0.28l). This applies also for soft drinks such as Cola or Fanta.

There are several sorts of beer on offer:

Ale - made from hop and malt, stronger than Lager beer

Best - the "best beer" of the pub

Bitter - contains a lot of hop and is therefore stronger than Lager

Lager - *Qingdao* beer or *Snow* beer are Lager beers

Low alcohol - similar to Lager beer but very mild

Stout - is a very dark and strong beer as **Guinness** beer from Ireland

White Shield - yeast beer with a sweetish taste. (Note: We do not drink the stuff that sediments down onto the ground of the glass!)

draught beer - taped beer from a barrel

bottled beer - beer in bottles

canned beer - beer in cans

a tred house - a pub that is closely connected to a brewery

a free house - a pub that is independent

a short measure - glass which is not properly filled up

*gnat's piss** - low quality beer

to booze - drinking excessively

the booze, the liquor - spirits

liqueur - spirits made from wine and fruits

wine - is made from grapes in a *fermenting process* like beer

spirits - Do not call spirits "wine" as they are made from rice, grain, wine or other things in a *distillation process* in which heat is involved. They usually contain more than 20% alcohol and are called Brandy, Gin, Whisky, Vodka, Schnaps, and so on.

a bubbly - sparkling wine such as Champagne

a short - a small glass of Spirit

a chaser - a following small glass of Spirit

a g and t - a gin and tonic (gin mixed with a certain sort of lemonade)

to drink it (down) in one - to swallow a drink in one go

to gulp - to swallow a drink in one go

"bottoms up!" - command to swallow a drink in one go

"Sup up!" - Swallow the drink in one go!

"This round is on me!" - I shall pay the next drink for all

"This round is on the house!" - The pub owner pay the next drink for all

top it up, please - raise the level of my drink by pouring more on it

last order! - shouted by the pub host before he wants to close

"One for the road!" - one last drink before I will leave

When somebody drank too much alcohol, people might say:

"He is drunk / squiffy / tipsy / pissed / pissed as a newt* / fresh / legless / paralytic / well gone / smashed / out of his brains / out of his head / out of his mind / out of his skull !"*

After the drinking

he is *sprewing / puking / throwing* his guts up - he is vomiting

On the next day, the drunk person might say: *"I'm (or: I'm feeling) poorly / sick / ill !"*

Others may say: *"He looks like death warmed up!"* or *"He looks like something the cat brought in!"* or *"He is as white as a sheet!"*

Names for People

All the world over, native inhabitants use special names for people of fringe groups or people who are considered to be not the norm. Here again, you should know the meaning but do not use those names as most of them are highly insulting.

paddies / micks - Irish

taffies - Welsh

jimmies - Scots

brummies - someone from Birmingham

scousers - someone from Liverpool

geordies - someone from the northeast of England

cockneys - someone from London or its outskirts

pakis - Pakistani (or sometimes other Asians)

dagos - Spaniards

wops - Italians

spiks - someone from Latin-America

chinkies - Chinese

japs - Japanese

commies - communists

krauts / bosch / Jerries - Germans

yanks / yankees - U.S. Americans

frogs - French

niggers / wogs / coons - people with black or dark brown skin colour

slant-eyes / slit-eyes - people who look Asian

Human Males:

bloke / guy / fella (or fellow) chap - man

lad / laddie - young man, teenager

Human Females:

doll / chick - woman

lass / lassie / bird - young woman, teenager

a bit of skirt / a bit of crumpet / a bit of fluff - pretty woman or girl

a sight for sore eyes - extremely beautiful woman or handsome man

Names for a woman used by her male partner:

darling / love / sunshine / flower / petal / pet / duck / chicken / treasure

Entertainment

We are going to the *flicks / pictures / movies / picture palace* - cinema

the preview - short clips that show either advertisements or film parts

a trailer - part of the preview

the martinee - afternoon performance

a late show - evening performance

Some months later, we can see the film in the *telly / tube / goggle box* - television, television set

Appearance

a dwarf / a midget / a titch - extreme small and short person

to be dumpy - a person who is short but chubby

to be plump / to be chubby - person who is overweight

to be meaty / to be stocky - person who is obese

*a dumpling** - a fat person

to be cuddly - to be fluffy and a bit chubby

to be built like a brick - to be extremely athletic and muscular

*shithouse** - someone who is obese and is considered to be stupid

a lanky - someone who is extremely tall and slim

to be skinny / scraggy / scrawny - to be extremely thin

to be thin as a rake - someone who is extremely thin

to be built like a matchstick - to be extremely thin

Body Business:

loo / bog / khazi - toilet, WC, bathroom

loo-roll / bog-roll - toilet paper

I am going to do my business / I am going to spend a penny / I am going to take a leak -

I am going to toilet

I am going to have a shit / I am going to have a crap** - I am going to toilet for big business

I am going to have a piss / I am going to have a pee / I am going to have a wee / I am going to shake hands with my wife's best friend*

- I am going to toilet for small business

I am bursting to go - I urgently need the toilet

to poop / to puff / to let one out / to break wind - to fart*

to belch / to kef - to burp

Body Parts

bottom / seat / rear / buttock / bum / arse** (US: ass) - lower backside

dick / cock / tool / willie / prick / knob / thing / rod / plonker* - penis

bollocks / balls* / nuts* / knackers / goolies* - testicles

tits / boobs* / melons / jugs / knockers / coconuts* - bust, breasts

she is well stacked - she has big breasts

pussy / fanny / crotch / twat* / clit* / cunt** - vagina

Making Love

foreplay - play with one another to come in the mood

to be in the mood - to be ready for sex

to be horny / to be randy - to be very keen on sex

snogging - kissing inintensively

to have a hard one - the man is ready for sex

johnny / durex - condom

a prick teaser - a woman who gets a man ready for sex but then stops

to be in the nude / to be stark naked / to be starkers / to be in your birthday suit - having no clothes on

to screw / to fuck* / to shag* - making love, having sex

to go all the way - having sex up to the orgasm

to come / to cum - having an orgasm

to fake it - pretend to have an orgasm

[man] *to wank / to have a five finger shuffle / to pull your plonker* / [woman] *to play with*

yourself - masturbate

a pimp - someone who provides a woman for sex

the red light district - part of the town in which one can buy sex

tart / whore - woman who makes love for money

to be on the game - a whore in the street that offers herself for sex

Afterwards

to be preggy / to be knocked up / to have a bun in the oven / to be in the club - to be pregnant

to pop the question - to propose marriage

hen night - the brides's eve-of-the-wedding party

stag night - the bridegroom's eve-of-the-wedding party

to get wed / to tie the knot - to get married

to walk down the aisle - to get married in a church

to go on the honeymoon - to have an after-wedding journey

to be jilted at the altar - to be refused in the last moment before getting wed

to drop a sprog - give birth to a baby

Cursing

There are many ways to say "this is bad". Native English speaker are well-known for their often rude curses. I do not encourage you to use these curses, but I think, you should understand what people say. That is why the curses have their place here too:

fuck / shit* / crap / naff / flaming heck / fucking* hell / bloody hell / bugger* / damn / damn it / damn it all / dash / gosh / blooming heck / flipping heck / flaming hell / bollocks* / balls* / nuts* / it's the pits / lousy / piss* poor / bloody awful / that's not on / Jesus / Christ / God / Jesus Christ*

"Be quiet" or "stop talking" is often expressed by:

zip up / belt up / shut up / button it / shut your mouth / shut your face / shut your gob* / shut your trap* / shut your cheese-hole**

"Go away" has a lot of variations:

get lost / clear off / beat it / shove off / buzz off / push off / get stuffed / fuck off / piss* off / bugger* off / don't bug me / get out of my sight / get off my back / drop dead* / on your bike / fuck* yourself / go and screw**

Describe A Person Or Its Quality:

We have lots of words that **describe a person or its quality**. It goes without saying that most of these words are insulting. So, do not use them!

a show off / a poser - person who shows off (inacceptable behaviour in most western countries)

a butch - someone who shows how masculine he is

*clever clogs / smart arse** - someone who pretends to know everything better

a Romeo / a Casanova / a Don Juan - a womaniser

he thinks he is God's gift to women - a womaniser

a sweet talker / a smooth talker - a flatterer or someone who talks a woman into his bed

a bully - someone who always tells others what to do

to be bossy - someone who behaves like a boss

a cocky - someone who is arrogant

a wally / a prick / a dickhead* / a pratt / a wanker* / a twit / a pillock / a nit-wit / a dope* - an idiot

a pisshead / an arsehole* / a shithead** - an hated person

a bore / a square - a boring person

a party pooper - someone who spoils the party or other activities

a hobbledehoy - a clumsy or bad-mannered youth

a goody-goody - a paragon or role model

a swot - a careerist, a social climber

a do gooder - either a careerist or someone who does good things

to be daft / drip / wet / to be as daft as a brush - to be stupid or dull

to be snooty / stuck up / toffee-nosed / snobby - to be arrogant

to get on someones nerves - to bother others extremely

to be as blind as a bat - to be blind or ignorant

Swearing and Taboo Expressions

Swear words and taboo words can intensify what is said, but they can shock or give offence. Swearing and the use of taboo words and expressions is quite common in speaking. We often hear and use it both in private and in public settings and in films, on television and on the radio.

The use of taboo expressions suggests that speakers have, or wish to have, a close personal relationship with others. We also use taboo expressions and swear words when we express strong feelings, or when we wish to threaten or to be unpleasant to others.

Warning:

It is sometimes difficult for learners of a language to know how strong such expressions are and how to use them in an appropriate way. Learners are advised against using all such expressions.

Most swearing and most uses of taboo expressions in English refer to religion or to parts of the body and bodily processes, especially those associated with sexual activity or with using the toilet.

In English, swearing which involves 'religious' taboo expressions is likely to be weaker than swearing that involves 'parts of the body' taboo expressions. The most common taboo expressions that involve 'parts of the body' are *fuck* (to have sexual intercourse – the word is used both as a Noun and as a verb) and *shit* (bodily excrement – the word is used both as a Noun and as an Adjective).

When we swear, we commonly use interjections. These can be single words or short phrases or clauses. We most commonly use them to express strong feelings, especially feelings of anger. The strength of the words and expressions here is marked in stars. A very strong expression has five stars (*****) and a less strong expression has one star (*). People have different views about which expressions are stronger than others.

Taboo expressions involving religion

Damn*! *She's borrowed my camera without telling me.*

Oh bloody hell!** *Just leave me alone, will you.*

Christ*!** *Why didn't you tell us how much the new brakes were going to cost!*

Taboo expressions involving parts of the body

Shit**!** I've forgotten to phone Geoff.

Oh **fuck it*****!** I can't find my phone.

We sometimes use *wh*-exclamatives with taboo words:

Why the hell* is he driving so fast!

What the fuck***** has she done to my laptop!

You will find the meanings of most taboo expressions in a good learner's dictionary.

Taboo intensifiers

Taboo expressions are very common as intensifying Adverbs or Adjectives:

Where's the **bloody**** key?

He's **fucking******* dangerous. He needs to get proper skis.

frigging

bally

Interjections (ouch, hurrah, hooray)

We use interjections to express emotions such as pleasure, surprise, shock and disgust.

Most interjections are just sounds, rather than actual words, and come at the beginning or at the end of what we say. Interjections are more common in speaking than in writing:

Ouch, it stings. (expresses pain)

You're going to the Maldives. That's a long way, **wow**. (expresses surprise and wonder)

Hurrah / Hoorah, here comes the bus at last! (expresses delight)

Ugh, sorry, I can't eat tomatoes. (expresses disgust)

Scots

Scots, or "Braid Scots" (Broad Scots) which is sometimes incorrectly called **Scottish English**, is a West Germanic language, spoken by about 2 million people in Scotland and in the north of Ireland. It is quite different from Scottish English which is only a dialect of English. Scots is an own language generally regarded as the only and last surviving form of Middle English and it is the only real offspring of the English language.

Up to the 16th century, Scots was the state language of Scotland. After a short period of decline, Scots became influential again in the Victorian era due to the works by Robert Burns, James Orr, Robert Fergusson and Sir Walter Scott – Burns's "Auld Lang Syne" is in Scots, is a good example. Scott introduced vernacular dialogue to his novels. Other well-known authors like Robert Louis Stevenson, William Alexander, George MacDonald, J. M. Barrie and Ian MacLaren also wrote in Scots or used it in dialogue.

Scots words often look like standard English words but lots of words have their own spelling. Scots was only partly influenced by the Great English Sound Shift. That is why Scots words are often spoken more like words in Dutch or German (or Pinyin, if you like). Some sounds are very different from Standard English: ch or gh is pronounced like the ch in Dutch "nacht" (night) or the h in "meihua" (but a bit stronger), the r is a trilling or rolling r like in Spanish. The t and d at the end of words are often not spoken.

Scots	Standard English
A, me, masel, mines, ma	I, me, myself, mine, my
thou / thoo ([ðu:], Southern Scots [ðʌu], Shetlandic [du:]) thee ([ði:], Shetland [di:])	The original 2nd Person Singular is still used in the family and among friends
thy ([ðai]), and thee ([ði], Shetland [di:] along with thine(s) [dɛɪn(z)])	2nd person singular possessive is still in use where thou / thoo remains.
we, (h)us, oorsels/wirsels, oor/wir	we, us, ourselves, our
ye or you	The 2nd Person Plural is used as formal address to a superior or an elder.
you / ye, you(se) / ye(se), yoursel / yersel	you (plural), yours, your, yourself
thay, thaim, thaimsels / thairsels, thairs, thair	they, them, themselves, theirs, their

Relative Pronoun

The relative pronoun is that ('at is an alternative form borrowed from Norse but can also be arrived at by contraction) for all persons and numbers, but may be left out. There's no mony fowk (that) bides in that glen (There aren't many people who live in that glen). The anglicised forms wha, wham, whase 'who, whom, whose', and the older whilk 'which' are literary affectations; whilk is only used after a statement. He said he'd tint it, whilk wis no whit we wantit tae hear (he said he'd lost it, which is not what we wanted to hear". The possessive is formed by adding 's or by using an appropriate pronoun. The wifie that's hoose gat burnt (the woman whose house was burnt), the wumman that her dochter gat mairit (the woman whose daughter got married); the men that thair boat wis tint (the men whose boat was lost).

A third Adjective / Adverb yon/yonder, thon / thonder indicating something at some distance. D'ye see yon / thon hoose ower yonder / thonder? Also thae (those) and thir (these), the plurals of that and this respectively. In Northern Scots this and that are also used where "these" and "those" would be in Standard English.

Other pronouns

Scots	English	Scots	English
this, thir	this, these	awthing	everything
that, thae	that, those	baith	both
onybody	anyone	ilk	each
onything	anything	ilka	every
nocht	nothing	ither	other
awbody	everyone		

Verbs

Modal Verbs

The modal verbs **may** (may), **ocht** tae / ocht ti (ought to), and **shall** (shall), are rarely used in Scots but occurs still in writing. **Can**, **shoud** (should), and **will** are the preferred Scots forms. Scots employs double modal constructions **He'll no can come the day** (He won't be able to come today), **A micht coud come the morn** (I may be able to come tomorrow), **A uised tae coud dae it, but no nou** (I used to be able to do it, but not now).

Negation occurs by using the adverb *no*, in the North East nae, as in ***A'm no comin*** (I'm not coming), ***A'll no learn ye*** (I will not teach you), or by using the suffix ***-na***, sometimes spelled ***nae*** (pronounced variously /ə/, /ɪ/ or /e/ depending on dialect), as in ***A dinna ken*** (I don't know), ***Thay canna come*** (They can't come), ***We coudna hae told him*** (We couldn't have told him), and ***A hivna seen her*** (I haven't seen her). The usage with ***no*** is preferred to that with ***-na*** with contractable Modal Verbs like ***-ll*** for will, or in yes/no questions with any Helper Verb ***He'll no come*** and ***Did he no come?***

Scots	English
are, arena	are, aren't
can, canna	can, can't
coud, coudna	could, couldn't
daur, daurna	dare, daren't
did, didna	did, didn't
dae, daena/dinna	do, don't
haed, haedna	had, hadn't
hae, haena/hinna/hivna	have, haven't
micht, michtna	might, mightn't
maun, maunna	must, mustn't
need, needna	need, needn't
shoud, shoudna	should, shouldn't
wis, wisna	was, wasn't
war, warna	were, weren't
will, winna	will, won't
wad, wadna	would, wouldn't

Present Tense Of Verbs

The present tense of Verbs adhere to the Northern subject rule whereby Verbs end in ***-s*** in all Persons and Numbers except when a single Personal Pronoun is next to the Verb, ***Thay say he's ower wee***, ***Thaim that says he's ower wee***, ***Thir lassies says he's ower wee*** (They say he's too small), etc. ***Thay're comin an aw but Five o thaim's comin***, ***The lassies? Thay'v went but Ma brakes haes went***. ***Thaim that comes first is serred first*** (Those who come first are served first). ***The trees growes green in the***

simmer (The trees grow green in summer). ***Wis*** (was) may replace ***war*** (were), but not conversely: ***You war / wis thare***.

Past Tense And Past Participle Of Verbs

The regular Past form of the weak or regular Verbs is ***-it***, ***-t*** or ***-ed***, according to the preceding Consonant or Vowel: The ***-ed*** ending may be written ***-d*** if the *e* is 'silent'.

- *hurrit* (hurled), *skelpit* (smacked), *mendit* (mended);
- *traivelt* (travelled), *raxt* (reached), *telt* (told), *kent* (knew/known);
- *cleaned/clean'd*, *scrieved/scriv'd* (scribbled), *speired/speirt* (asked), *dee'd* (died).

Many verbs have (strong or irregular) forms which are distinctive from Standard English (two forms connected with ~ means that they are variants):

- *bite / bate / bitten* (bite / bit / bitten), *drive / drave / driven-drien* (drive / drove / driven), *ride / rade / ridden* (ride / rode / ridden), *rive / rave / riven* (rive / rived / riven), *rise / rase / risen* (rise / rose / risen), *slide / slade / slidden* (slide / slid / slid), *slite / slate / slitten* (slit / slit / slit), *write / wrate / written* (write / wrote / written), pronounced *vrit / vrat / vruten* in Mid Northern Scots;
- *bind / band / bund* (bind / bound / bound), *clim / clam / clum* (climb / climbed / climbed), *find / fand / fund* (find / found / found), *fling / flang / flung* (fling / flung / flung), *hing / hang / hung* (hang / hung / hung), *rin / ran / run* (run / ran / run), *spin / span / spun* (spin / spun / spun), *stick / stack / stuck* (stick / stuck / stuck), *drink / drank / drunk-drucken* (drink / drank / drunk);
- *creep/crap/cruppen* (creep/crept/crept), *greet/grat/grutten* (weep/wept/wept), *sweil/swat/swutten* (sweat/sweat/sweat), *weel/wat/watten* (wet/wet/wet), *pit/pat/pitten* (put/put/put), *sit/sat/sitten* (sit/sat/sat), *spit/spat/spitten-sputten* (spit/spat/spat);
- *brek-brak / brak / brakken-broken* (break / broke / broken), *get-git / gat / gotten* (get / got / got[ten]), *speak / spak / spoken* (speak / spoke / spoken), *fecht / focht / fochten* (fight / fought / fought);
- *beir / buir / born(e)* (bear / bore / borne), *sweir / swuir / sworn* (swear / swore / sworn), *teir / tuir / torn* (tear / tore / torn), *weir / wuir / worn* (wear / wore / worn);
- *cast / cuist / casten-cuisten* (cast / cast / cast), *lat / luit / latten-luitten* (let / let / let), *staund / stuid / stuiden* (stand / stood / stood), *fesh / fuish / feshen-fuishen* (fetch /

fetched), *thrash* / *thrasht-thruish* / *thrasht-thruishen* (thresh / threshed / threshed), *wash* / *washt-wuish* / *washt-wuishen* (wash / washed / washed);

- *bake* / *bakit-beuk* / *bakken* (bake / baked / baked), *lauch* / *leuch* / *lauchen-leuchen* (laugh / laughed / laughed), *shak* / *sheuk* / *shakken-sheuken* (shake / shook / shaken), *tak* / *teuk* / *taen* (take / took / taken);
- *gae* / *gaed/gane* (go / went / gone), *gie* / *gied* / *gien* (give / gave / given), *hae* / *haed* / *haen* (have / had / had);
- *chuisse* / *chused* / *chosen* (choose / chose / chosen), *soum* / *soumed* / *soumed* (swim / swam / swum), *sell* / *selt-sauld* / *selt-sauld* (sell / sold / sold), *tell* / *telt-tauld* / *telt-tauld* (tell / told / told), *cut* / *cuttit* / *cuttit* (cut / cut / cut), *hurt* / *hurtit* / *hurtit* (hurt / hurt / hurt), *keep* / *keepit* / *keepit* (keep / kept / kept), *sleep* / *sleepit* / *sleepit* (sleep / slept / slept).

Present Participle

The Present Participle and Gerund end with **in** and sound /ən/ but may have other sounds like /ə/ and /i/ in Southern Scots and, /ən/ and /ɪn/ North Northern Scots.

Adverbs

Adverbs are usually of the same form as the Verb root or Adjective especially after Verbs. ***Haein a real guid day*** (Having a really good day). ***She's awfu fauchelt*** (She's awfully tired).

Adverbs are also formed with -s, -lies, *lins*, *gate(s)* and *wey(s)* -*wey*, *whiles* (at times), *mebbes* (perhaps), *brawlies* (splendidly), *geylies* (pretty well), *aiblins* (perhaps), *airselins* (backwards), *haufins* (partly), *hidlins* (secretly), *maistlins* (almost), *awgates* (always, everywhere), *ilkagate* (everywhere), *onygate* (anyhow), *ilkawey* (everywhere), *onywey* (anyhow, anywhere), *endweys* (straight ahead), *whit wey* (how, why).

Prepositions

Scots	English
abuin, buiner, buinmaist	above, upper, topmost
ablo, nether, blomaist	below, lower, lowest
alang	along
aboot	about
anent	about (concerning)
athort	across
afore	before
ahint	behind
aneath	beneath
aside	beside
atween/atweesh	between
ayont	beyond
frae/fae	from
intae/intil	into

Question Words

Scots	English	Scots	English
whit?	what?	whan?	when?
whilk? whulk?	which?	whar / whaur?	where?
wha? / whae?	who?	how? whitfor?	why? what for?
whase / whause	whose	whither	whether
wham	whom	hou?	how?

In the North East, the 'wh' in the above words is pronounced /f/.

Word Order

Scots prefers the word order ***He turnt oot the licht*** to "He turned the light out" and ***Gie's it*** (Give us it) to "Give it to me". Certain Verbs are often used in their Continuous form ***He wis thinkin he wad tell her***, ***He wis wantin tae tell her***. Verbs of motion may be dropped before an Adverb or adverbial phrase of motion ***A'm awa tae ma bed***, ***That's me awa hame***, ***A'll intae the hoose an see him***.

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Subordinate Clauses

Verbless subordinate clauses introduced by *an* (and) express surprise or indignation. *She haed tae walk the hale lenth o the road an her seiven month pregnant* (and she seven months pregnant). *He telt me tae rin an me wi ma sair leg* (and me with my sore leg).

Diminutives

Diminutives are ending that denote something or someone is small. Such words end in *-ie*, *burnie* = small *burn* (stream), *feardie* / *feartie* (frightened person, coward), *gamie* (gamekeeper), *kiltie* (kilted soldier), *postie* (postman), *wifie* (woman, also used in Geordie dialect), *rhodie* (rhododendron), and also in *-ock*, *bittock* (little bit), *playock* (toy, plaything), *sourock* (sorrel) and Northern *-ag*, *bairnag* (little), *bairn* (child, common in Geordie dialect), *Cheordag* (Geordie), *-ockie*, *hooseockie* (small house), *wifeockie* (little woman), influenced by the Scottish Gaelic diminutive *-ag* (*-óg* in Irish Gaelic).

Numbers

Ordinal numbers end mostly in *t. seicont*, *fowert*, *fift*, *saxt*— (second, fourth, fifth, sixth) etc., but note also *first*, *thrid/third*— (first, third).

Scots	English
ane/ae, first	one, first
twal, seicont	two, second
three, thrid/third	three, third
fower, fowert	four, fourth
five, fift	five, fifth
sax, saxt	six, sixth
seiven, seivent	seven, seventh
aicht, aicht	eight, eighth
nine, nint	nine, ninth
ten, tent	ten, tenth
eleiven, eleivent	eleven, eleventh
twal, twalt	twelve, twelfth

Ae /e:/, /je:/ is used as an adjective before a noun[88] such as : The Ae Hoose (The One House), Ae laddie an twa lassies (One boy and two girls). Ane is pronounced variously, depending on dialect, /en/, /jɛn/ in many Central and Southern varieties, /in/ in some Northern and Insular varieties, and /wan/, often written yin, een and wan in dialect writing.

The impersonal form of 'one' is a body as in A body can niver bide wi a body's sel (One can never live by oneself).

Suffixes

- Negative **na**: /a/, /ɪ/ or /e/ depending on dialect. Also 'nae' or 'y' e.g. *canna* (can't), *dinna* (don't) and *maunna* (mustn't).
- fu** (ful): /u/, /ɪ/, /a/ or /e/ depending on dialect. Also 'fu', 'fie', 'fy', 'fae' and 'fa'.
- The word ending **ae**: /a/, /ɪ/ or /e/ depending on dialect. Also 'a', 'ow' or 'y', for example: *arrae* (arrow), *barrae* (barrow) and *windae* (window), etc.

Times of the Day

Scots	English
forenuin	morning
twal-oors	midday
efternuin	afternoon
forenicht	evening
dayligaun, gloamin	dusk, twilight
midnicht	midnight
wee-oors	early morning

Scots Words in Standard English

Due to emigration to British colonies, Scots words found their place also in other English-speaking countries. Here are some of them:

Ain – Own
Auld – Old
Aye – Yes
Bahoochie, Bahooky – Bottom / Backside / Butt

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Backgreen - garden or back yard
Bairn – Baby, Child
Baw – Ball
Bawface – Describes someone with a big round face.
Ben – Mountain, or through
Bide – Depending on the context, means wait, or stay.
Blether – Chatter-box. To “have a blether” is to have a chat.
Boke – Vomit. “He gies me the boke”. He makes me want to vomit.
Bonnie – Beautiful
Bowfing – Smelly, horrible
Braw – Good, nice, or brilliant
Breeks – Trousers
Burn - Stream or Creek
Canny - From English **can** in older sense of “to know how.”. Careful, or Clever
Chancer - Con-man, Trickster
Chitter - Shiver
Clarty - Dirty or Unkempt
Clatty - another word for dirty
Clipe - This means to 'tell on' someone, or 'snitch'
Coo – Cow
Crabbit - Bad-tempered or Grumpy
Cry – Call, as in what do you cry him?
Dae - (pronounced 'day') Do
Dauner –
Dauner - (pronounced 'donna') – Walk, Stroll or Saunter; “I’m away for a dauner”
Dicht – To dust, or wipe.
Didnae – Didn't
Dighted – Daft.
Dinnae – Don't
Drap – Drop
Dreep – Drip
Drookit – Soaking wet
Dug – Dog
Dunderheid, Eejit, Galoot, Numptie – All mean idiot
Dunt – Bump
Eejit - Idiot
Feart – Afraid

Frae – From
Gallus – Bravado, over-confident
Gang – Go
Gaunnae – Going to
Geggie – Mouth, as in “shut your geggie”
Girn - Complain or Whine
Glaikit – Stupid, slow on the uptake
Glen - Valley
Goonie – Nightgown
Gowk – Daft.
Greet – Cry
Gumption – Common sense, initiative
Guy - Very
Hae – Have
Hame – Home
Haud – Hold
Haver - Talk Nonsense
Heid - Head
Hing – Hang
Hoachin’ – Very busy
Hokin’ – Rummaging
Honkin’, Hummin’, Howlin’ – Bad smell
Hoose – House
Hunner – Hundred
Huvnae – Haven't
Keek – Peek, A little look
Ken – Know
Lad / Laddie - Boy, youth, young man
Laldie - Scold / Reprimand
Lass / Lassie - Girl, young woman
Loch - Lake
Links - Sandy, rolling ground, from Old English hlinc (ridge).
Lum – Chimney
Luve – Love
Mair – More
Maw – Mum.
Merrit – Married

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Mockit, Manky, Mingin', Boggin' – All mean dirty
Moose – Mouse
Naw – No
Neep, Tumshie – Turnip
Noo – Now
Och! - Oh!
Oot – Out
Oxters - Armpits
Peely-Walley / Wally - Pale or Wan
Pettet-lip - pouty lip
Piece - Snack or Sandwich
Pinkie - Little Finger
Poke – (to poke – to prod) (a poke – a paper bag)
Reek – Smell, emit smoke
Riddy – A red face, embarrassed
Sassenach – Saxon, English
Screwball – Unhinged, mad
Scullery – Kitchen
Scunner – Nuisance, Irritating person; as in: "oh you're a right scunner".
Scunnered – Bored, fed up
Shoogle – Shake
Shoogly – Shaky, wobbly
Siangabbit - with an underbite
Simmet – Gents singlet
Skelp – Slap
A Skelping - A Thrashing
Skyte - To slip or slide across a hard surface
Skoosh – Lemonade (or fizzy drink)
Sleekit – Sly
Slitter – To spill food stuff down yourself.
Stookie – Plaster cast (for a broken bone)
Stour – Dust
Tattie – Potato
Telt – Told
Thon – That
Tumshie (aka 'Neeps') - Turnip
Tweed - Cloth being woven in a twilled rather than a plain pattern. from tweel

Wain - (pronounced Wayne) Child
Wean – Child
Wee - Little, small, tiny; as in Let's go out for a wee walk
Wee Nyaff - Little nuisance (as in a person)
Wellies – Wellington boots
Whit – What
Willnae – Will not
Widnae – Would not
Windae – Window
Wow – from Whowe, Exclamation of surprise
Wummin – Women
Ye – You
Yer – Your
Yin – One
Yon - That

Sample texts

From *The New Testament in Scots* (William Laughton Lorimer 1885- 1967) Mathew:1:18ff

This is the storie o the birth o Jesus Christ. His mither Mary wis trystit til Joseph, but afore they war mairriet she wis fund tae be wi bairn bi the Halie Spírit. Her husband Joseph, honest man, hed nae mind tae affront her afore the warld an wis for brakkin aff their tryst hidlinweys; an sae he wis een ettlin tae dae, whan an angel o the Lord kythed til him in a draim an said til him, "Joseph, son o Dauvit, be nane feared tae tak Mary your trystit wife intil your hame; the bairn she is cairrein is o the Halie Spírit. She will beir a son, an the name ye ar tae gie him is Jesus, for he will sauf his fowk frae their sins."

Aa this happent at the wurd spokken bi the Lord throu the Prophet nicht be fulfilled: Behaud, the virgin wil bouk an beir a son, an they will caa his name Immanuel – that is, "God wi us".

Whan he hed waukit frae his sleep, Joseph did as the angel hed bidden him, an tuik his trystit wife hame wi him. But he bedditna wi her or she buir a son; an he caa'd the bairn Jesus.

From *Hallow-Fair* (Robert Fergusson 1750–1774)

At Hallowmas, whan nights grow lang,
And starnies shine fu' clear,
Whan fock, the nippin cauld to bang,
Their winter hap-warms wear,
Near Edinbrough a fair there hads,
I wat there's nane whase name is,
For strappin dames an sturdy lads,
And cap and stoup, mair famous
Than it that day.
Upo' the tap o' ilka lum
The sun bagan to keek,
And bad the trig made maidens come
A sightly joe to seek
At Hallow-fair, whare browsters rare
Keep gude ale on the gantries,
And dinna scrimp ye o' a skair
O' kebbucks frae their pantries,
Fu' saut that day.

From *The Maker to Posterity* (Robert Louis Stevenson 1850–1894)

Far 'yont among the years to be
When a' we think, an' a' we see,
An' a' we luve, 's been dung ajee
By time's rouch shouther,
An' what was richt and wrang for me
Lies mangled throu'ther,
It's possible - it's hardly mair -
That some ane, ripin' after lear -
Some auld professor or young heir,
If still there's either -
May find an' read me, an' be sair
Perplexed, puir brither!
"What tongue does your auld bookie speak?"
He'll spier; an' I, his mou to steik:
"No bein' fit to write in Greek,
I write in Lallan,

Dear to my heart as the peat reek,
Auld as Tantallon.
"Few spak it then, an' noo there's nane.
My puir auld sangs lie a' their lane,
Their sense, that aince was braw an' plain,
Tint a'thegether,
Like runes upon a standin' stane
Amang the heather.

A Red, Red Rose – The poem

"A Red, Red Rose" is a 1794 song in Scots by Robert Burns based on traditional sources. The song is also referred to by the title "Oh, My Love is Like a Red, Red Rose", "My Love is Like a Red, Red Rose" or "Red, Red Rose" and is often published as a poem.

O my Luve's like a red, red rose
That's newly sprung in june;
O my Luve's like the melodie
That's sweetly play'd in tune:

As fair art thou, my bonnie lass,
So deep in luve am I:
And I will luve thee still, my dear,
Till a' the seas gang dry:

Till a' the seas gang dry, my dear,
And the rocks melt wi' the sun:
I will luve thee still, my dear,
While the sands o' life shall run.

And fare thee weel, my only Luve
And fare thee weel, a while!
And I will come again, my Luve,
Tho' it were ten thousand mile.

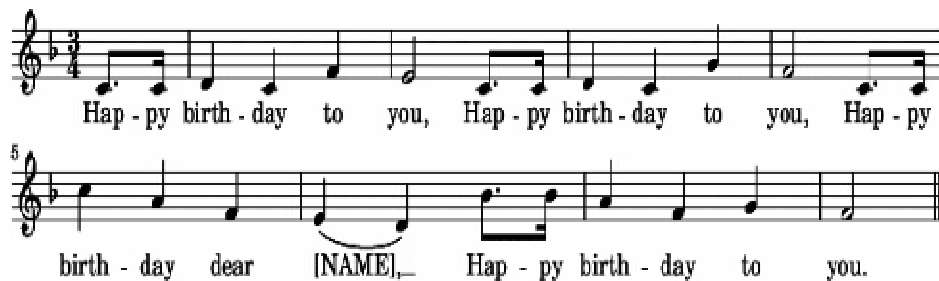
SINGING ENGLISH SONGS

Learning English songs can tremendously effect the learner's ability to pronounce English words with ease. Here we can see a small collection of songs that are easy to learn and sing. These songs are traditional. They are still loved and sung in all English-speaking countries and beyond. The selected songs here are easy to sing because each syllable of the lyrics match one tone in the melody.

Happy Birthday

“Happy Birthday to You”, also known more simply as “Happy Birthday”, is a song that is traditionally sung to celebrate the anniversary of a person's birth. According to the *Guinness Book of World Records*, “Happy Birthday to You” is the most recognised song in the English language, followed by “For He's a Jolly Good Fellow”. The song's base lyrics have been translated into many languages.

The melody of “Happy Birthday to You” comes from the song “Good Morning to All”, which has been attributed to American siblings Patty Hill and Mildred J. Hill in 1893.



Here are the lyrics of both songs:

Good Morning to All

*Good morning to you,
Good morning to you,
Good morning, dear children.
Good morning to all.*

Happy Birthday to You

*Happy birthday to you,
Happy birthday to you,
Happy birthday dear [NAME*],
Happy birthday to you.*

*At the end of the third sentence we sing either the celebrated person's given name or the family name like "Mr / Mrs / Ms / Miss Evans" for example.

Frère Jacques

“Frère Jacques” in English sometimes called “Are You Sleeping?”, is a French nursery melody. The song is traditionally sung in a round. The song is about a monk, Brother Jacob, who has overslept and is urged to wake up and sound the bells for the matins, the midnight or very early morning prayers for which a monk would be expected to wake.

The original French version of the song is as follows:

*Frère Jacques, Frère Jacques,
Dormez-vous? Dormez-vous?
Sonnez les matines! Sonnez les matines!
Ding, dang, dong. Ding, dang, dong.*

The song is traditionally translated into English as:

*Are you sleeping, are you sleeping,
Brother John? Brother John?
Morning bells are ringing! Morning bells are ringing!
Ding, dang, dong. Ding, dang, dong.*

A literal translation (by Lord Henfield) which is easier to sing:

Brother Jacob, Brother Jacob

Still sleeping? Still sleeping?

Ring the morning bells now! Ring the morning bells now!

Ding, dang, dong. Ding, dang, dong.

Here is the music sheet with the melody in music notes:

Frè - re Jac - ques, Frè - re Jac - ques, dor - mez vous? Dor - mez vous?

Sonnez les ma - ti - nes! Sonnez les ma - ti - nes! Din, dan, don. Din, dan, don.

For He's a Jolly Good Fellow

“For He's a Jolly Good Fellow” or “For She's a Jolly Good Fellow” (depending on gender of the addressed person) is a song that is sung to congratulate a person on a significant event, such as a promotion, a birthday, a wedding (or playing a major part in a wedding), a wedding anniversary, the birth of a child, or the winning of a championship sporting event. The melody originates from the French song “*Marlbrough s'en va-t-en guerre*” (“Marlborough Has Left for the War”). According to the Guinness Book of World Records, “For He's a Jolly Good Fellow” is the second-most popular song in the English language, following “Happy Birthday to You” and followed by “Auld Lang Syne”.

For he's a jolly good fellow, for he's a jolly good fellow

For he's a jolly good fellow, and so say all of us

And so say all of us, and so say all of us

For he's a jolly good fellow, for he's a jolly good fellow

For he's a jolly good fellow, and so say all of us!

For the British phrase “... **and so say all of us**”, Americans sing “... **which nobody can deny**”.

For he's a jol - ly good fel-low, for he's a jol - ly good fel-low For he's a jol - ly good

fel - low, and so says all of us And so say all of us and

so says all of us For he's a jol - ly good fel - low, for he's a jol - ly good

fel - low for he's a jol - ly good fel - low and so say all of us

Auld Lang Syne

"Auld Lang Syne" is a Scots poem written by Robert Burns in 1788 and set to the tune of a traditional folk song. It is sung in all English-speaking countries and is well known all the world over. Its traditional use being to bid farewell to the old year at the stroke of midnight. It is also sung as a farewell or ending to other occasions.

Here is the music sheet with the melody in music notes:

Should auld ac-quaint-ance be for-got, And nev - er brought to mind? Should

auld ac-quaint-ance be for-got, And days of auld lang syne? For

auld lang syne, my dear, For auld lang syne; We'll

take a cup o' kind - ness yet For auld lang syne.

These two versions of the lyrics show how different English can be:

Burns' original Scots verse

Should auld acquaintance be forgot,
and never brought to mind?
Should auld acquaintance be forgot,
and auld lang syne*?

CHORUS:

*For auld lang syne, my jo,
for auld lang syne,
we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.*

And surely ye'll be your pint-stoup!
and surely I'll be mine!
And we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.

English translation

Should old acquaintance be forgot,
and never brought to mind?
Should old acquaintance be forgot,
and days of long ago?

CHORUS:

*For days of long ago, my dear,
for days of long ago,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for days of long ago.*

And surely you'll buy your pint cup!
and surely I'll buy mine!
And we'll take a cup o' kindness yet,
for days of long ago.

CHORUS:

*For auld lang syne, my jo,
for auld lang syne,
we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.*

We twa hae run about the braes,
and pou'd the gowans fine;
But we've wander'd mony a weary fit,
sin' auld lang syne.

CHORUS:

*For auld lang syne, my jo,
for auld lang syne,
we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.*

We twa hae paidl'd in the burn,
frae morning sun till dine;
But seas between us braid hae roar'd
sin' auld lang syne.

CHORUS:

*For auld lang syne, my jo,
for auld lang syne,
we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.*

And there's a hand, my trusty fiere!
and gie's a hand o' thine!
And we'll tak' a right gude-willie waught,
for auld lang syne.

CHORUS:

*For auld lang syne, my jo,
for auld lang syne,
we'll tak' a cup o' kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.*

CHORUS:

*For days of long ago, my dear,
for days of long ago,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for days of long ago.*

We two have run about the slopes,
and picked the daisies fine;
But we've wandered many a weary foot,
since days of long ago.

CHORUS:

*For days of long ago, my dear,
for days of long ago,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for days of long ago.*

We two have paddled in the stream,
from morning sun till dine (dawn);
But seas between us broad have roared
since days of long ago.

CHORUS:

*For days of long ago, my dear,
for days of long ago,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for days of long ago.*

And there's a hand my trusty friend!
And give me a hand o' thine!
And we'll take a right good-will draught,
for days of long ago.

CHORUS:

*For days of long ago, my dear,
for days of long ago,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for days of long ago.*

However, many people prefer to sing this simplified version

Should old acquaintance be forgot,
and never brought to mind?
Should old acquaintance be forgot,
and days of auld lang syne?

CHORUS (1 time):

***For auld lang syne, my friends,
for auld lang syne,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.***

Should old acquaintance be forgot,
and never brought to mind?
Should old acquaintance be forgot,
and days of auld lang syne?

CHORUS (3 times):

***For auld lang syne, my friends,
for auld lang syne,
we'll take a cup of kindness yet,
for auld lang syne.***

Robert Burns (25 January 1759 – 21 July 1796), was a famous Scottish poet and lyricist born in Alloway, Ayrshire, Scotland. He is widely regarded as the national poet of Scotland and is celebrated in all English-speaking countries worldwide. Much of his work is written in Broad **Scots**, a version of Middle English. The Scottish culture and language influences standard English a lot.

Did you ever see a Lassie

It was first published in 1909, in *Games for the Playground, Home, School and Gymnasium* by Jessie Hubbell Bancroft. The melody is of German origin from the 17th century. The word **lass** or **lassie** means girl, and **lad** or **laddie** means boy. The song has these two verses:

1st verse

*Did you ever see a lassie,
A lassie, a lassie?
Did you ever see a lassie,
Go this way and that?
Go this way and that way,
Go this way and that way.
Did you ever see a lassie,
Go this way and that?*

2nd verse

*Did you ever see a laddie,
A laddie, a laddie?
Did you ever see a laddie,
Go this way and that?
Go this way and that way,
Go this way and that way.
Did you ever see a laddie,
Go this way and that?*

Here is the music sheet with the melody in music notes:

Did you e - ver see a las - sie, a las - sie, a las - sie? Did you

e - ver see a las - sie go this way and that? Go this way and that way, go this way and

that way Did you e - ver see a las - sie go this way and that?

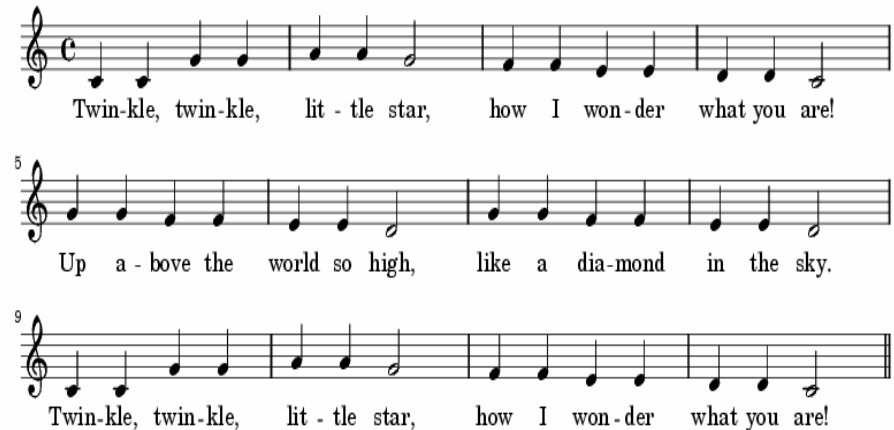
Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star

"Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star" is a popular English lullaby. The lyrics are from an early 19th-century English poem by Jane Taylor, "The Star". The poem, which is in couplet form, was first published in 1806 in *Rhymes for the Nursery*, a collection of poems by Taylor and her sister Ann. It is sung to the tune of the French melody *Ah! vous dirai-je, maman*, which was published in 1761.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
Up above the world so high,
Like a diamond in the sky. | 2. <i>When the blazing sun is gone,</i>
<i>When he nothing shines upon,</i>
<i>Then you show your little light,</i>
<i>Twinkle, twinkle, through the night.</i> |
| 3. <i>Then the traveller in the dark</i>
<i>Thanks you for your tiny spark;</i>
<i>He could not see where to go,</i>
<i>If you did not twinkle so.</i> | 4. <i>In the dark blue sky you keep,</i>
<i>And often through my curtains peep,</i>
<i>For you never shut your eye</i>
<i>Till the sun is in the sky.</i> |
| 5. <i>As your bright and tiny spark</i>
<i>Lights the traveller in the dark,</i>
<i>Though I know not what you are,</i>
<i>Twinkle, twinkle, little star.</i> | 6. <i>Twinkle, twinkle, little star, *</i>
<i>How we wonder what you are.</i>
<i>Up above the world so high,</i>
<i>Like a diamond in the sky.</i> |
| 7. <i>When the glorious sun has set, *</i>
<i>And the grass with dew is wet,</i>
<i>Then you show your little light,</i>
<i>Twinkle, twinkle, all the night.</i> | 8. <i>When the golden sun doth rise, *</i>
<i>Fills with shining light the skies,</i>
<i>Then you fade away from sight,</i>
<i>Shine no more 'till comes the night.</i> |

*Verse 7 and 8 are from the 1896 in *Song Stories for the Kindergarten* by Mildred J. Hill.

The song is used in nursery schools and its melody was adapted to that song which became world famous: The Alphabet Song.



The Alphabet Song, and similar songs

is a kindergarten song sung with the tune of "Twinkle, twinkle. little star". It is best sung like this (here with IPA transcription)

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, (/eɪ biː siː diː iː ɛf dʒiː,/))

H, I, J, K, L, M, N, (/ˈhɪɪtʃ aɪ dʒeɪ keɪ ɛl, ɛm ɛn,/))

O, P, Q, (and) **R, S, T,** (/oʊ piːkjuː [ænd] ər ɛs, tiː,/))

U, V, W, X, Y, Z, (/juː viː dʌbəljuː, ɛks, waɪ, ziː [or zed]/))

X, y, z, now you see, (/ɛks, waɪ, ziː [or zed] naʊ juː siː/))

I can say my ABC. (/aɪ kan seɪ maɪ eɪ biː siː/))

In most English-speaking countries (such as Canada, the UK and Australia) Z it is pronounced **zed**. In the United States, however, Z is pronounced **zee** (ziː) because "zee" rhymes better with "see", and because every American school in the 19th century used this song.

The Alphabet Song or ABC Song

The *Alphabet Song* was first published in 1835 by Charles Bradlee from Boston, United States. It is sung with the tune of "Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star". It helps children to remember all letters of the English alphabet. Teachers have the best success when they write the letters on a blackboard in this matching pattern that children easily can grasp:

THE ALPHABET SONG						
A	B	C	D	E	F	G
H	I	J	K	L	M	N
O	P	Q		R	S	T
U	V	W		X	Y	Z
X,	y,	z,		now	you	see,
I	can	say	my	A	B	C

THE ALPHABET SONG

Charles Bradlee, 1835

Phonetic Transcription
by Lord Henfield, 2011

A B C D E F G, H I J K L M N,
ei bi si di i ef ji heitch ai jei kei el em en

O P Q and R S T, U V dou-ble-U X Y Z.
ou pi kyu and ar es ti yu vi da-bl-yu eks uai zed

X Y Z, now you see, I can say my A B C.
eks uai zed nau yu si ai kan sei mai ei bi si

The Number Song

The *Number Song* is based on the Alphabet Song and the composition is written by myself. It helps children to remember all numbers from 1 to 20. The numbers can be written on a blackboard with number characters like below, but later the teacher also can use the full English words. Teachers have the best success when they write the numbers on a blackboard in this matching pattern that children easily can grasp:

THE NUMBER SONG						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11			12
13		14		15		16
17		18		19		20
1,	2,	3,		now	you	see,
I	can	say	my	I	2	3

THE NUMBER SONG

Lord Henfield, 2011

Phonetic Transcription
by Lord Henfield, 2011

One, two, three, four, five, six, se-ven, Eight, nine, ten, e - le - ven, twelve
uon tu thri for faif six se ven eit nain ten e le ven twelf

Thir teen, four teen, fif teen, six teen, se ven teen, eight teen, nine teen, twen ty.
ther tin for tin fif tin six tin se ven tin eit tin nain tin twen ti

One, two, three, now you see, I can count my one two, three.
uon tu thri nau yu si ai kan kaunt mai uon tu thri

The Colour Song

The *Colour Song* is based on the Alphabet Song and this composition is also written by myself. It helps children to remember the 3 basic colours **red**, **yellow** and **blue** and what paint colours they can mix from them. Children might remember that even easier when the teacher write the colours on a blackboard in this matching pattern and with coloured crayons:

THE COLOUR SONG

Blue	and	yel	low	give	me	green
Red	and	yel	low	make	o	range
Red	and	blue	can	make	pur	ple
Grey	is	made	of	black	and	white
dark	and	bright		so	are	made
all	the	rain	bow	co	lours	fine

THE COLOUR SONG

Lord Henfield, 2011 Phonetic Transcription
by Lord Henfield, 2011

Blue and Ye-llow give me Green, Red and Ye-llow make O-range.
 blu and ye lo gif mi grin red and ye lo meik o ranch

5

Red and Blue can make Pur-ple, Grey is made of Black and White.
 red and blu kan meik per pel grei is meid of blak and wait

9

Dark and Bright, so are made, all the Rain bow Co lours fine.
 dark and brait so ar meid ol the rein bo ka lers fain

The Days of the Week Song

The *Days of the Week Song* gives teachers the opportunity to explain to the learners that English day names do not refer to numbers like in China but to German gods: Monday = Moon-day, Tuesday = day of Tyr, Wednesday = day of Wodin (supreme god), Thursday = day of Thor (god of thunder), Friday = day of Fria (goddess of love, Saturday = Saturn Day (Roman god of farming), Sunday = Sun-day.

THE DAYS OF THE WEEK SONG

Mon	day	Tues	day	Wed	nes	day
Thurs	day	Fri	day	Sa	tur	day
and	the	won	der	ful	Sun	day
One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Seven
Se	ven	days,		now	you	see,
I	know	all	days	of	the	week

THE DAYS OF THE WEEK SONG

Lord Henfield, 2011 Phonetic Transcription
by Lord Henfield, 2011

Mon day, Tues day, Wed nes day, Thurs day, Fri day, Sa tur day,
 mon dei tyus dei we dens dei thers dei frai dei sa ter dei

5

And the won der ful Sun day; one two three four five six se ven,
 and the won der ful San dei uon tu thri for faif six se ven

9

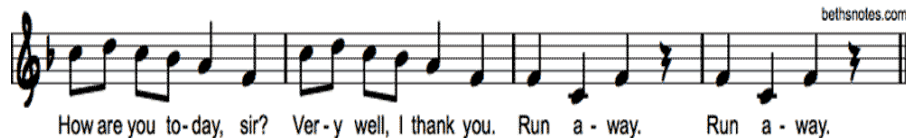
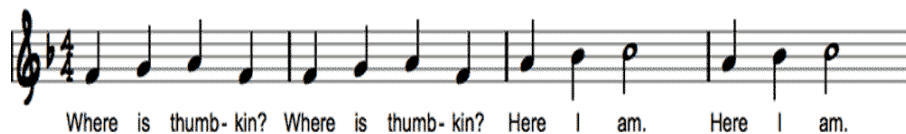
Se ven days, now you see, I know all days of the week
 Se ven deis nau yu si ai neu ol deis of the wik

Where is Thumbkin?

"Where is Thumbkin" is a nursery and primary school song designed for an activity with fingers describing the names of the fingers, beginning with the thumb and going down to the other fingers:

<i>childrens' word</i>	<i>adults' word</i>	<i>medical term</i>
thumbkin	thumb	pollex
pointer	index finger or indicator	index
tall man	middle finger	digitus medius
ring man	ring finger	digitus anularis
pinky or pinkie	little finger	digitus minimus

Simple classroom activity: Show your thumb (by singing "*where is thumbkin?*", 2x); then show the other thumb as if it would answer (*Here I am!*, 2x), the 1st thumb sings (*How are you today, Sir?*, 1x) the 2nd answers (*Very well, I thank you*, 1x), then move both hands behind your back (by singing *Run away*, 2x), repeat that little show with the index finger (by singing "*where is pointer?*", 2x), and so on. The last verse which is "where are we all?", 2x; Here we are, 2x; How are you today folks?, 1x; Very well, we thank you We can have some more fun by drawing smiling faces on the pads of the fingertips.



Row, Row, Row Your Boat

"Row, Row, Row Your Boat" is a famous English language nursery rhyme from America, and a popular children's song, often sung as a "round". It was first published in 1852. It can also be an "action" nursery rhyme where singers sit opposite one another and 'row' forwards and backwards with joined hands.



The most common modern version is:

**Row, row, row your boat,
Gently down the stream.
Merrily, merrily, merrily, merrily,
Life is but a dream.**

People often add verses, to make the song funny:

*Row, row, row your boat,
Gently down the stream.
If you see an alligator,
Don't forget to scream.*

*Row, row, row your boat,
Gently down the stream.
Throw your teacher overboard
And listen to her scream.*

God Rest Ye Merry, Gentlemen (Christmas carol, 1775)

"Rest You Merry, Gentlemen" is an English traditional Christmas carol. It is also known as "Tidings of Comfort and Joy" or under the title "The old Christmas Carol". It is one of the oldest extant carols, dated to the 16th century or earlier. The earliest known printed edition of the carol is in a broadsheet dated to c. 1760. The carol is referred to in Charles Dickens' *A Christmas Carol*, 1843.

God rest ye merry, gentlemen.
CHRISTMAS.

Carol 722.
Words Traditional. Traditional.

mf

1. God rest ye mer-ry, gen-tle-men, Let noth-ing you dis-may, For Je-sus Christ our
 2. In Beth-le-hem, in Ju-ry, This bless-ed Babe was born, And laid with-in a
 3. From God our Hea-ven-ly Fa-ther, A bless-ed An-gel came; And un-to cer-tain

mf

Sa-vi-our, Was born up-on this day: To save us all from Satan's power When we were gone a-
 man-ger Up-on this bless-ed morn; The which His Mother Ma-ry Noth-ing did take in
 shep-herds Brought tidings of the same: How that in Beth-le-hem was born The Son of God by

CHORUS. After each verse.

ff

stray: }
 scorn: } O ti-dings of oomfort and joy, oomfort and joy, O ti-dings of com-fort and joy.
 Name: }

Often, the carol begins with the chorus: "**O tidings of comfort and joy, comfort and joy, O tidings of comfort and joy**". followed by 5 verses + chorus:

CHORUS:

**O tidings of comfort and joy,
 comfort and joy,
 O tidings of comfort and joy.**

1. God rest ye merry, Gentlemen,
 Let nothing you dismay,
 Remember, Christ our Saviour
 Was born on Christmas-day
 To save us all from Satan's power
 When we were gone astray.
Chorus ...

2. From God our heavenly Father
 A blessed angel came,
 And unto certain shepherds
 Brought tidings of the same,
 How that in Bethlehem was born
 The Son of God by name:
Chorus ...

3. From God our heav'nly Father
 A bles'sed angel came,
 And unto certain Shepherds
 Brought tidings of the same,
 How that in Bethlehem was born
 The Son of God by name:
Chorus ...

4. Fear not, then said the Angel,
 Let nothing you affright,
 This day is born a Saviour
 Of a Virgin, pure and bright;
 To free all those who trust in Him
 From Satan's power and might
Chorus ...

5. Now to thy Lord sing praises,
 All you within this place,
 And with true love and brotherhood
 Each other now embrace;
 This holy tide of Christmas
 All other doth deface:
Chorus ...

The transitive use of the Verb **rest** in the sense "to keep, cause to continue to remain" is typical of 16th to 17th century language (the phrase **rest you merry** is recorded in the 1540s). The first line often is mis-punctuated as "God rest you, merry gentlemen" because in contemporary language, **rest** has lost its use with a predicate adjective following and qualifying the object. The Adjective **merry** in the 1540s had a wider meaning of "*pleasant; bountiful, prosperous*". Some variants use in the first line the pseudo-archaic Pronoun **ye** instead of **you**.

It's a Long Way to Tipperary

"It's a Long Way to Tipperary" is a British music hall song written by Jack Judge. It was allegedly written for a 5-shilling bet in Stalybridge on 30 January 1912 and performed the next night at the local music hall. Now commonly called "It's a Long Way to Tipperary", the original printed music calls it "It's a Long, Long Way to Tipperary." It became popular among soldiers in the First World War and is remembered as a song of that war.

In the American version we sing "Into New York City" (instead of Up to mighty London*), Goodbye Staten Island, Farewell to Times Square (instead of Goodbye, Piccadilly*, Farewell, Leicester Square!*). After 100 years, the song is still popular and sung in pubs or on parties.

1.
Up to mighty London*
Came an Irish lad one day.
As the streets are paved with gold
Sure, everyone was gay,
Singing songs of Piccadilly,
Strand and Leicester Square,
Till Paddy got excited,
Then he shouted to them there:

2.
Paddy wrote a letter
To his Irish Molly-O,
Saying, "Should you not receive it,
Write and let me know!"
"If I make mistakes in spelling,
Molly, dear," said he,
"Remember, it's the pen that's bad,
Don't lay the blame on me!"

CHORUS
***It's a long way to Tipperary,
It's a long way to go.
It's a long way to Tipperary
To the sweetest girl I know!
Goodbye, Piccadilly,*
Farewell, Leicester Square!*
It's a long long way to Tipperary,
But my heart's right there.***

CHORUS
*It's a long way to Tipperary,
It's a long way to go.
It's a long way to Tipperary
To the sweetest girl I know!
Goodbye, Piccadilly,
Farewell, Leicester Square!
It's a long long way to Tipperary,
But my heart's right there.*

3.
Molly wrote a neat reply
To Irish Paddy-O,
Saying "Mike Maloney
Wants to marry me, and so
Leave the Strand and Piccadilly
Or you'll be to blame,
For love has fairly drove me silly:
Hoping you're the same!"

CHORUS
1x
*It's a long way to Tipperary,
It's a long way to go.
It's a long way to Tipperary
To the sweetest girl I know!
Goodbye, Piccadilly,
Farewell, Leicester Square!
It's a long long way to Tipperary,
But my heart's right there.*

The musical score is written in G major (one sharp) and 4/4 time. It consists of three systems of music. The first system has two staves: the top staff has chords G, D, and G above it, and the bottom staff has the lyrics 'Up to migh-ty Lon-don came An I-rish lad one day, All the streets were paved with gold, So'. The second system also has two staves: the top staff has chords F#, B, G, and F# above it, and the bottom staff has the lyrics 'ev - 'ry-one was gay! Sing - ing songs of Pic - ca - dil - ly, Strand, and Leices - ter'. The third system has two staves: the top staff has chords B, B7, A, A7, D, and G above it, and the bottom staff has the lyrics 'Square, Til Pad - dy got ex - ci - ted and He shou - ted to them there: It's a long way'. The fourth system has two staves: the top staff has chords Em, C, G, and Em above it, and the bottom staff has the lyrics 'to Tip - pe - ra - ry, it's a long way to go. It's a long way to Tip - pe - ra - ry,'. The fifth system has two staves: the top staff has chords E7, A, A7, D7, G, Em, and C above it, and the bottom staff has the lyrics 'to the swee - test girl I know. Good - bye Pic - ca - dil - ly, Fare - well'. The sixth system has two staves: the top staff has chords B7, G, Em, C, G, Em, A7, D7, and G above it, and the bottom staff has the lyrics 'Leices - ter Square, It's a long, long way to Tip - pe - ra - ry, but my heart's right there!'.

MILITARY DRILL COMMANDS

Drill commands are very similar in all English-speaking countries. Drill commands are best given when the person has an excellent command voice. A command voice is characterised by DLIPS: **D**istinctness, **L**oudness, **I**nflection, **P**rojection, and **S**nap.

Distinctness – This depends on the correct use of the tongue, lips, and teeth to form the separate sounds of a word and to group those sounds to force words. Distinct commands are effective; indistinct commands cause confusion. Emphasise clear enunciation.

Loudness – This is the volume used in giving a command. It should be adjusted to the distance and number of individuals in the formation. The commander takes a position in front of, and centered on, the unit and facing the unit so his or her voice reaches all individuals. Speak loudly enough for all to hear, but do not strain the vocal cords.

Inflection – This is the change in pitch of the voice. Pronounce the preparatory command—the command that announces the movement—with a rising inflection near or at the end of its completion, usually the last syllable. When beginning a preparatory command, the most desirable pitch of voice is near the level of the natural speaking voice. A common fault is to start the preparatory command so high that, after employing a rising inflection, the passage to a higher pitch for the command of execution is impossible without undue strain. A properly delivered command of execution has no inflection. However, it should be given at a higher pitch than the preparatory command.

Projection – This is the ability of your voice to reach whatever distance is desired without undue strain. To project the command, focus your voice on the person farthest away. Counting in a full, firm voice and giving commands at a uniform cadence while prolonging the syllables are good exercises. Erect posture, proper breathing, a relaxed throat, and an open mouth help project the voice.

Snap – This is the conciseness of the command.

General principles

Most of the commands in modern drill are separated into two distinct parts; the Preparatory Command, and the Command of Execution. The preparatory command

indicates to the person performing the movement that a command of execution is soon to follow – and which action to perform.. The command of execution indicates the movement to be performed. An example of this is the command "**Present ARMS**", which is utilised to command a group of soldiers to render a salute. In this command, the word "**Present**" is the preparatory command, whereas the following word, "**ARMS**" is the command of execution. The movement is performed immediately upon reception of the execution command.

When issuing the command, vocal inflection is varied so that the preparatory command is given less emphasis, and the most emphasis is placed on the command of execution. There is usually a slight hesitation between each element of the command, about the duration of a finger snap. Other examples of the two-part command structure are:

- "Right Flank...MARCH"
- "Order...ARMS"

The vast majority of armies perform their drill from the base position of Attention. In this position, the person performing the movement stands straight, arms down and slightly flexed, fingers curled into the palm, thumbs pointed down and placed against the seam of the trouser, and the feet positioned at a forty-five degree angle with heels together. The most common command given by leaders to gather their elements into formations is the command "**Fall IN**", at which time the person takes their position in the formation and at the position of attention. From this position, almost any other drill command can be executed. In Commonwealth drill styles troops will generally fall in without formal commands and then be brought to Attention in order to begin the drill.

Common drill commands

Each of the three services in the United Kingdom has its own drill manuals. Most commands are the same across all three services, but there are significant differences in the way movements are carried out.

- *Mark Time*: March without movement in the Quick time pace (a pace of 116 paces to the minute (normal) and up to 140 paces to the minute (Rifle regiments))
- *Forward*: continue marching in quick time without breaking step

- *Change step on the march*: order to step in on the left foot on the march (despite the name no change in the step should be made if completed properly).

Drill Commands in the United Kingdom

Each of the three services in the United Kingdom has its own drill manuals. Most commands are the same across all three services, but there are significant differences in the way movements are carried out.

Drill orders are always given in the form of 2 components: the 'cautionary' followed the 'executive'; for example, in the command "Right Turn" "Right" gives warning that an order is to follow, on hearing the word "Turn" the order executed. The first word is usually drawn out (e.g. Ri-i-i-ght...) to allow time for preparation for the order to follow, the second word (the 'executive') is delivered sharply with extra emphasis, (e.g. TURN!) British Army long form: e.g. "Company will retire, AAAbout TurN!". This works well on a large parade ground because of the relatively slow delivery. "Company will retire" is the warning and says what is to be achieved. "About Turn" says what to do and gives the timing of when to do it.

Drill Commands in the Royal Navy

In the Royal Navy, commands are given on the right foot except for the left turn. Especially with the shorter commands which have no cautionary, e.g. "HO", an identifier is used, e.g. "Squad", "Divisions", "Parade", "Ship's Company", "Guard of Honour", etc. Due to the different working environment of the Naval Service, feet are not stamped and knees are not raised except when marking time. The Royal Navy marches at a cadence of 116 paces to the minute in quick time, 65 paces to the minute in slow time (75 for funeral gun carriages), and 180 paces to the minute in double time.

- "Fall in" – Individuals form a formation at the "at ease" position.
- "Change ARMS" – Individuals change the side of the body that the rifle is held on. This command can be given both when the rifle is in the shoulder arms position and the slope arms position. This command was introduced for use with the SA80 (Heckler & Koch Assault Rifle) and was not previously used, except for demonstration drill with the SLR. Also used with the SLR (the Rifle; but no longer in use with SA80) is the command "Trail Arms", involving the

transfer of the soldier's grip from the pistol grip to the carrying handle of the rifle in order to carry the rifle horizontally.

- "Present ARMS" – Individuals execute a rifle salute and hold it until given the command "slope arms" ("shoulder arms" with the "SLR", the "Self-Loading Rifle").
- "Shoulder ARMS" – Individuals bring their rifle back down to their side. The command "order arms" was used with the longer SLR.
- "Slope ARMS" – Individuals place the rifle in the slope, which is with the magazine and pistol grip facing to the individual's left, and the rifle resting on the left shoulder, supported by the left arm at an angle of ninety degrees. This position was not used with the SLR.
- "Off CAPS" – This order is given before prayers are read, and formerly before inspection. Men bring the right hand to the left hand brim of the cap (for men dressed as seamen) or to the peak of the cap (for officers and senior rates), grasping the cap. After two marching paces, the cap is brought smartly to the side. Women stand still. A different manoeuvre is carried out to the same command when three cheers are to be given.
- "On CAPS" – Caps are replaced on the head. After two marching paces, the right hand is brought smartly to the side. Caps and berets are not adjusted until the order "Stand EASY" is next given.
- "Dis-MISS" – This command is given to disband the unit, individuals do a 90 degree turn to the right, dwell two marching paces, and then disperse.
- "By the right (left) DRESS" – Individuals in the front rank except those on the extreme right side turn their heads to the right and raise their right arms parallel to the ground in order to get the proper distance from each other. In other ranks, all except those on the extreme right turn their heads to the right. When all movement has ceased, arms are brought smartly down and heads turned to the front, starting at the right, those on the left following on in rapid succession. If the command "Right DRESS" (rather than "By the right DRESS") is given, heads and arms are kept in position until the command "Eyes FRONT". If the command is "Left DRESS" or "By the left DRESS", heads are turned and arms raised to the left. If half-arm or no intervals are desired, the command can be preceded with "With half-arm intervals" or "Without intervals".

- "Stand at EASE" – Individuals move the left foot so that both feet are shoulder width apart, bringing both arms behind the back interlocking the hands. If armed, the arms are not brought behind the back. When armed with the SLR, the movement was the same as with the American command.
- "Stand EASY" – Individuals are permitted light movement, but are not allowed to talk or move their feet. If armed, the left and right arms are brought slowly and uniformly to meet in the centre of the body supporting the butt of the rifle. The barrel rests over the right shoulder. The movement is completed to the timing: "One thousand, two thousand, three thousand, four thousand, still."
- "Eyes FRONT" – Individuals face forwards again. 2i/cs bring down their salutes.
- "HALT" – The executive is given on the right foot, and is followed by a check pace with the left foot followed by the right foot which is placed smartly alongside the left foot without stamping. The timing used is "one, still". The movement is the same whether given in quick or slow time.
- "HO" (known as Attention) – Individuals brace up at the identifier ("Parade"/"Divisions"/"Squad", etc.). At the executive, the left foot is brought smartly together with the right foot and arms are brought down to the side.
- "Right (left) in-CLINE" – Individuals turn 45 degrees to the right (left).
- "Close order MARCH" – The formation is restored to its normal interval.
- "Double MARCH" – Individuals jog in time. The command is usually preceded by the command "By the left (right, centre), depending on which file (left, right or centre) they are take their dressing from, not which foot they use to step off on.
- "Forward (Step back) MARCH" – Individuals take the appropriate number of steps to the front or rear, starting with the left foot, in quick time. This command is given at the halt, and preceded with the number of paces, e.g. "One pace only".
- "Left (Right) close MARCH" – Individuals take the appropriate number of steps to the left or to the right, closing with the other foot, in quick time. This command is given at the halt, and preceded with the number of paces, e.g. "One pace only".
- "Open order MARCH" – Each rank (row) spreads out from the middle rank by stepping forwards or backwards. If only two ranks, the rear rank steps backwards. It is usual to precede the command with the number of paces to be marched, as described below, unless this has already been briefed.
- "Quick MARCH" – Individuals begin marching, always setting off on the left foot. The initial pace follows immediately the executive is given, and is a reduced pace of 20 inches, compared with a full marching pace of 30 inches. The command is usually preceded by the command "By the left (right, centre), depending on which file (left, right or centre) they are take their dressing from, not which foot they use to step off on.
- "Slow MARCH" – Individuals begin marching at ceremonial pace, bringing their foot forward, holding it level above the ground briefly, then placing it onto the ground. The command is usually preceded by the command "By the left (right, centre), depending on which file (left, right or centre) they are take their dressing from, not which foot they use to step off on.
- "Eyes RIGHT (LEFT)" – Individuals, except the right (left) marker, turn their heads to the right (left). 2i/cs salute.
- "About TURN" – Individuals turn 180 degrees (always turning to the right), ending up facing the opposite direction, turning on the heel of the right (left) and the ball of the left (right) foot. The rear foot is then brought smartly alongside the front foot. When given on the march, the executive is given on the right foot, and is followed by a single check pace with the left foot, followed by three mark-time paces during which the body is turned 180 degrees to the right with the hands held still by the side. The step off is with the left foot.
- "Right (left) TURN" – Individuals turn 90 degrees to the right (left), turning on the heel of the right (left) and the ball of the left (right) foot. The rear foot is then brought smartly alongside the front foot. At the halt, the command is preceded by the precautionary "Into line" (to bring the squad into lines abreast), "Move to the right (left) in threes" (to make the squad three abreast, the officer at the side) or "Move to the right (left) in column of route" (to make the squad three abreast, the officer leading). When ordered on the march, the command is given on the right (left) foot. The arms are held still while a single check pace to the front follows. The next pace is placed at 90 degrees in the direction ordered. On the second pace in the new direction arms are again swung.
- "To the front (right, left) SALUTE" – The right hand is brought up to touch the rim of the cap over the right eye, palm facing down and slightly inwards. The

head faces the front or is turned to the right or left as appropriate. At the halt, the salute is held for two marching paces. On the march, it is held until the person or object being saluted is past.

- "Change STEP" – The executive is given on the right foot, and is followed by a full pace on the left foot with the instep of the right foot swiftly brought to the heel of the left foot, which continues with another pace. The timing used is "left-close, left".
- "Mark TIME" – Individuals march in place, with the knees brought up so that the thigh is parallel to the ground.
- "Right (left) WHEEL" – This command is given on the march. The unit pivots about the front left or right soldier. That inside soldier almost marks time while turning, and the rest of the front line moves round by 90 degrees.

Drill Commands in other services

The following commands are generally used, with a few variations, by the **British Army**, **Royal Marines** and **Royal Air Force**. Most commands given whilst marching are given when the left foot hits the ground (with the exception of the left turn and the change step), i.e. the last word of the command is timed to match the left foot's impact. Actions are described with SLRs rather than the traditional Drill Purpose .303's

- "Fall in" – Individuals form a formation at the "at ease" position. In more informal drill, many NCOs say "Get fell in".
- "Attention" – Individuals snap to the position of attention, bringing the left leg up so that the thigh is parallel to the ground and bringing the left foot down in a stamp. The command is usually abbreviated to "Shun", although the RAF has only recently adopted this usage.
- "Present arms" – Individuals execute a rifle salute and hold it until given the command "slope arms" ("shoulder arms" with the SLR).
- "Slope arms" – Individuals place the rifle in the slope, which is with the magazine and pistolgrip facing to the individual's left, and the rifle resting on the left shoulder, supported by the left arm at an angle of ninety degrees. This position was not used with the SLR.
- "Shoulder arms" – Individuals bring their rifle back down to their side. The command "order arms" was used with the longer SLR.

- "Change arms" – Individuals change the side of the body that the rifle is held on. This command can be given both when the rifle is in the shoulder arms position and the slope arms position. This command was introduced for use with the SA80 and was not previously used, except for demonstration drill with the SLR. Also used with the SLR (but no longer in use with SA80) is the command "Trail Arms", involving the transfer of the soldier's grip from the pistol grip to the carrying handle of the rifle in order to carry the rifle horizontally.
- "Open Order, March" – Each rank (row) spreads out from the middle rank by stepping forwards or backwards. If only two ranks, the rear rank steps backwards.
- "Close Order, March" – The formation is restored to its normal interval.
- "Dressing right dress" – Individuals except those on the extreme right side turn their heads to the right and raise their right arms parallel to the ground in order to get the proper distance from each other. Individuals at the extreme right, apart from the individual at the front (the right marker), raise their right arms straight out in front of them. Sometimes combined with open or close order as "In open/close order, right dress". This can also be given as left dress (looking to the left, left arms raised), or inwards dress (looking to the centre, with left and right arms raised depending on position from the centre.)

"Right dress" (to bring or keep troops in line while turning in a standing or marching formation)

- "Stand at ease" – Individuals spread their feet about twelve inches, by lifting the thigh parallel to the ground, while bringing both of their arms behind their back interlocking their hands. If armed, the left and right arms maintained at the sides of the body. When armed with the SLR, the movement was the same as with the American command.
- "Stand easy" – Individuals are permitted light movement, but are not allowed to talk or move their feet. If armed, the left and right arms are brought slowly and uniformly to meet in the centre of the body supporting the butt of the rifle. The barrel rests over the right shoulder. The movement is completed to the timing: "One thousand, two thousand, three thousand, four thousand, still."
- "Right (left) turn" – Individuals turn 90 degrees to the right (left). Can also be ordered on the march. For a left turn, the command is given when the right foot

hits the ground, the left foot is then placed as normal, the next right pace is placed at 90 degrees in front of the left foot. The next right pace is in that direction as well and marching continues.

- "Right (left) incline" – Individuals turn 45 degrees to the right (left).
- "Right (left) wheel" – The unit pivots about the front left or right soldier. That inside soldier almost marks time while turning, and the rest of the front line moves round by 90 degrees.
- "About turn" – Individuals turn 180 degrees (always turning to the right), ending up facing the opposite direction. Can also be ordered on the march. When given whilst marching, the command is given as the right heel strikes the ground. A check pace is taken with the left, and the right foot is carried into the instep of the left foot. The Left knee is raised while the right pivots the body 90 degrees to the right, the right knee is raised while the left pivots 90 degrees to the right, bringing the body to face 180 degrees. The left knee is raised to complete the movement. Then step off with the right foot.

Note: Usually remembered by "Step" "T" "L" "V" "Step" "March" where T, L, V stands for the general shape of the feet when the 'about turn' is done.

- "By the right (left, centre), quick, march" – Individuals begin marching, always setting off on the left foot. The term "by the..." refers to which file (left, right or centre) they take their dressing from, not which foot they use to step off on. Timing used is "check, in, left, right, left, away."
- "By the right (left, centre), slow march" – Individuals begin marching at ceremonial pace, bringing their foot forward, holding it level above the ground briefly, then sliding it into the ground.
- "Halt" – Given on the left foot in quick time. Timing used is "check, one, two." Given on as the left foot passes the right in slow time, with the left striking the ground and the right thigh bent parallel to the ground, the right foot driven in beside the left in quick time.
- "Change step" – Individuals execute a movement in order to get in step with the formation. Ordered on the right foot.
- "Mark time" – Individuals march in place.
- "Double time" – Individuals begin to jog.
- "Eyes right (left)" – Individuals, except the right marker, turn their heads to the right (left).

- "Eyes front" – Individuals face forwards again.
- "Salute to the front, salute" – Individuals initiate a halt, perform two salutes then a full about turn and march off in the opposite direction. If given at the halt, the only one salute is given, and is held until the command "Shun" (attention).
- "Salute to the right (left), salute" – Individuals move their head so as to look to the right (left), while at the same time bringing their hand up to the salute position parallel to their right eye for five seconds, then snap it back down to their sides and turn their head so they are facing the front again.
- "Dismiss" – This command is given to disband the unit, individuals do a 90 degree turn to the right (45 for RAF), salute if an officer (or other personage accorded a salute) is present, March 3 paces (5 paces for RAF) smartly and then continue to march until clear of the parade ground.
- "Paces" – Units can be told to do a certain number of paces forward/backward/left/right, with a command like "3 paces left/right close, march" or "2 paces forward/back, march." The advised limit on the number of paces is 6 left or right, 6 backwards or forwards. The idea of the limit is if you want to go further left or right or backwards, you should turn the unit and march them, and if you want to go further forward, you have enough time to give a halt command so a standard quick march is preferable. Side stepping a unit is also prone to miss aligning them and a dress may be needed after. Paces to the side are carried out in slow time, with paces forward and back in quick time, without the arm movement.

Drill Commands in Canada

The commands in English are very similar to British Drill commands while the commands in French are generally translations of the English. The Canadian Forces sometimes call weapon drill in French while march commands are called in English. This is done at units such as trades schools where both English and French are used. Unilingual English units and unilingual French units generally use their own language for all commands. Commands are broken up into two parts: the "precautionary" (i.e. "Squad, single file from the left quick -") followed by the "executive" (-MARCH). There is a standard pause of two paces in quick time or one full second between the two commands, as well as between all drill movements.

Position and direction (English commands)

- *Attention:* The position of attention is one of readiness for a word of command. Alertness and exactness in this position is important, and therefore personnel should not be kept at attention longer than necessary. Heels together and in line; feet turned out to form an angle of 30 degrees; body weight distributed evenly on both feet; shoulders level, square to the front; arms hanging as straight as their natural bend will allow, with elbows and wrists touching the body; wrists straight, the back of the hands outwards; fingers aligned, touching the palm of the hand, thumbs placed on the side of the forefinger at the middle joint with the thumbs and back of the fingers touching the thighs lightly and the thumbs in line with the seam of the trousers; and head held erect, neck touching the back of the collar, eyes steady, looking their height and straight to the front.
- *Stand at Ease:* The position of standing at ease is an intermediate position between attention and standing easy. It allows no relaxation but can be maintained without strain for a longer time than the position of attention. Heels are 10" (25 centimetres) apart; arms behind the back, stretched to their full extent, and place the back of the right hand in the palm of the left, with thumbs crossed right over left, the fingers together and extended; and weight evenly distributed on both feet.
- *Stand Easy:* The position of stand easy is ordered when it is desirable to permit troops to relax. This command is only given when the squad is in the position of stand at ease. Stand with feet shoulder width apart, upper body is relaxed without slouching. When standing easy, squad members may, with permission, move all but their feet and adjust clothing and equipment, but they shall not smoke or talk.
- *To the (Front, Left, Right) Salute:* Salute to the (front, left, right) (When called on the march, is called on the left foot)
- *Right Turn:* Turn 90 degrees to the right (When called on the march, is called on the left foot)
- *Left Turn:* Turn 90 degrees to the left (When called on the march, is called on the right foot)
- *About Turn:* Turn 180 degrees to face the opposite direction (always turning to the right) (When called on the march, is called on the right foot)

- *Right Incline:* Turn 45 degrees to the right (When called on the march, is called on the left foot)
- *Left Incline:* Turn 45 degrees to the left (When called on the march, is called on the right foot)
- *Dismiss:* Turn 90 degrees to the right, salute (if the Canadian flag OR an officer is present on the parade square), and march (off the parade square or until SEVEN paces have been completed, on the fifth call the corp or division cadence)
- *Open order march:* The ranks of a formed group will take three check paces away from the center rank. (When there are three ranks, the front rank will take three check paces forward and the rear rank will take three check paces backwards. When there are two ranks, only the rear rank takes three check paces back)
- *Close order march:* The ranks of a formed group will take three check paces toward the centre rank. (When there are three ranks, the front rank will take three check paces backwards and the rear rank will take three check paces forwards. When there are two ranks, only the rear rank takes three check paces forward)
- *Right/Left dress:* The formed group will take one check pace forward (excluding the right marker), and all ranks will turn their head and eyes towards the right on a right dress or towards the color party on an inwards dress. They then shuffle back and everyone will align themselves with the person on their right/left. The right/left marker remains in place during the movement. (The movement can be adjusted for elbow or shoulder dressing. The commander will add the words "Elbow/Shoulder dressing-" before "right/inwards dress").

Marching

- *By the (Left, Centre, or Right) Quick march:* Marching in quick time (120 beats per minute), arms swing waist high in the front and waist high in the back.
- *By the (Left, Centre, or Right) Slow march:* Marching in slow time (60 beats per minute), arms checked at sides.
- *By the (Left, Centre, or Right) Double march:* Marching in double time (180 beats per minute), bend arms at the elbow and swing naturally from the shoulder.

- *Mark time*: Called on the right foot when on the march. A check pace is taken on the left foot, the right slides beside the left, and then marches on the spot starting with the left foot. (The formed group will still continue with the pace used (quick or slow (cannot mark time while in double time)). Knees are raised and bent 90 degrees while marking time. Arms are checked at the sides as if at attention.
- *Forward*: Called on the left foot while marking time. A pace will be taken on the right foot and then begin marching forward starting with the left foot

Drill Commands in the United States

Commands are executed with a preparatory and execution command. Commands that are in lower case are the preparatory commands (commands given to tell you are supposed to do). Commands that are in upper case are the execution commands (commands that tell you to do whatever the preparatory command was).

Basic Commands:

- "ATTENTION": Heels are brought together and on the same line. Feet are turned out equally, forming a 45° angle with each other, knees straight but without stiffness. Arms hanging straight without stiffness at the sides of the body in such a way that the thumbs are along the trouser seams. The backs of the hands are turned away from the body and hands and fingers are cupped naturally. Chest up, shoulders back and level. Eyes looking straight to the front. When assuming the position of attention, bring the heels together smartly and audibly.
- "(Stand) At, EASE": Move the left foot to the left so that the feet are shoulder width apart. This command allows you to relax. Right foot may not move. You may not talk.
- "REST": Move the left foot to the left so that the feet are shoulder width apart. This command allows you to relax. Except for keeping the right foot in place, you may move around and talk.
- "Parade, REST": Move the left foot smartly 12 inches to the left. At the same time the foot is moved, clasp the hands behind the back, palms to the rear, the thumb and forefinger of the right hand clasping the left thumb. As at attention, the knees are kept straight without stiffness, the weight of the body equally distributed, and silence and immobility are maintained.
- "Dress Right, DRESS": Used to get the proper alignment between ranks. Squad leader, head turns left 45° with left arm out. Squad members head turns Right 45° with left arm out. Members will move to the point where their right shoulder is touching the tips of the other persons left hand.
- "Ready, FRONT": Used after dress right dress. Arm goes down. Head looks forward.
- "COVER": The right arm is brought straight up and extended unbent to the front so that the fingertips are barely touching the right shoulder of the person in front to establish correct spacing.
- "RECOVER": The right arm is moved smartly back to the side in the position of attention.
- "UNCOVER, TWO": right hand is moved to the brim of cover on the command UNCOVER. On the command TWO, cover is removed off head. This command is only used in the US Navy.
- "COVER, TWO": On command cover, the cover is placed back on head, with right hand still on cover. On the command, TWO right hand is dropped back to ATTENTION position. This command is only used in the US Navy.
- "Open Ranks, MARCH": Command to open a step between each ranks, used for inspections.
- "Close Ranks, MARCH": Command to close the above described step between each rank.
- "HAND SALUTE": Present arms when not carrying a weapon, or with a weapon at sling arms.
- "Ready, TWO": Command to drop Hand Salute.
- "Right (left), FACE": A turn to the right (left).
- "About, FACE": A complete 180° turn to the right.

Rifle Drill:

- "Order, ARMS": On the command, the butt of the rifle will be lowered to the ground touching the side of the right foot with the hand forming a "V" or "Taco Grip" at the barrel. This is the rifle version of ATTENTION.
- "Port, ARMS": Rifle is held upright at an angle across the torso with the muzzle pointed up and to the left. The left hand is on the handguard and the right hand is on the small of the stock, with the right forearm parallel to the ground/deck. The weapon is held at a distance of one fist width away from the chest.

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- "Right Shoulder, ARMS": Rifle is moved to the right shoulder, rifle making a 45° angle to the ground, and right forearm parallel to the deck/ground.
- "Left Shoulder, ARMS": Rifle is moved to the left shoulder, rifle making a 45° angle to the ground, and left forearm parallel to the deck / ground.
- "Present, ARMS": Unarmed Members render a hand salute. While armed members will render a rifle salute.
- "Secure, ARMS": Rifle is turned upside down placed under the right shoulder.
- "Inspection, ARMS": Lock open the bolt of the rifle, then glance quickly into the chamber to ensure that the weapon is empty.

Marching Commands:

- "Forward, MARCH": forward marching movement in cadence.
- "Double time, MARCH": commence jogging at 180 steps per minute.
- "Half step, MARCH": marching forward at half steps.
- "Route step, MARCH": You no longer need to maintain cadence.
- "Column Right (left), MARCH": A turn to the right (left) while marching.
- "(By the) right (left) flank, MARCH: Every member in the marching movement turns Right (left) at the same time.
- "Column half right (left), MARCH": A half turn to the right (left) while marching.
- "(By my) right (left) oblique, MARCH": Every member in the marching movement makes a half turn to the right (left) at the same time.
- "Squad / Platoon / Company (or appropriate formation designation), HALT": Take one more step then freeze.

MORSE CODE

The Morse code is a method of transmitting text information in a series of on-off tones, lights, or clicks as standardised sequences of short and long signals which are called "dots" and "dashes", or "dits" and "dahs". It is named after Samuel F. B. Morse, the inventor of the telegraph who also created the first signal codes in the 1830s. Morse code has been in use for more than 170 years—longer than any other electrical coding system. After some minor changes, the International Morse Code was standardised at the International Telegraphy Congress in 1865 in Paris and was later made the standard by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU). The International Morse Code encodes the ISO basic Roman alphabet, some extra Roman letters, the Indian-Arabic numerals and a small set of punctuation and procedural signals (prosigns) Because many non-English natural languages use more than the 26 Roman letters, extensions to the Morse alphabet exist for those languages.

Each Morse code symbol is represented by a unique sequence of dots and dashes. The duration of a dash is three times the duration of a dot. Each dot or dash is followed by a short silence, equal to the dot duration. The letters of a word are separated by a space equal to three dots (one dash), and the words are separated by a space equal to seven dots. The dot duration is the basic unit of time measurement in code transmission. To increase the speed of the communication, the code was designed so that the length of each character in Morse varies approximately inversely to its frequency of occurrence in English. Thus the most common letter in English, the letter "E", has the shortest code, a single dot.

Chart Of The International Morse Code

1. The length of a dot is one unit.
2. A dash is three units.
3. The space between parts of the same letter is one unit.
4. The space between letters is three units.
5. The space between words is seven units.

A	● —	1	● — — —
B	— ● ● ●	2	● ● — — —
C	— ● — ●	3	● ● ● — —
D	— ● ●	4	● ● ● ● —
E	●	5	● ● ● ● ●
F	● ● — ●	6	— ● ● ● ●
G	— — ●	7	— — ● ● ●
H	● ● ● ●	8	— — — ● ●
I	● ●	9	— — — — ●
J	● — — —	0	— — — — —
K	— ● —	.	● — ● — ● —
L	● — ● ●	,	— — — ● ● — —
M	— —	?	● ● — — ● ●
N	— ●	:	— — — ● ● ●
O	— — —	;	— — ● — — ●
P	● — — ●	!	— — ● — — —
Q	— — ● —	“”	● — ● ● — ●
R	● — ●	,	● — — — — ●
S	● ● ●	/	— ● ● — ●
T	—	—	● ● — — ● —
U	● ● —	(— ● — — ●
V	● ● ● —)	— — — — ● —
W	● — —	=	— ● ● ● —
X	— ● ● —	@	● — — — ● — ●
Y	— ● — —	-	— — ● ● ● —
Z	— — ● ●	+	● — — ● — ●

Compared to voice, Morse code is less sensitive to poor signal conditions, yet still comprehensible to humans without a decoding device. Therefore, the Morse is a useful alternative to synthesised speech for sending automated data to skilled listeners on voice channels. The knowledge of the Morse code is used by radio operators of members of the armed forces as well as police and rescue services. In an emergency, Morse code can be sent by other methods that such as torch lamps or mirrors or anything that can make sound, making it one of the simplest and most versatile methods of telecommunication. The most common distress signal is "**SOS**". It means "we are seriously in danger and need help!" It is internationally recognised by treaty and has **3 dots**, **3 dashes**, and **3 dots**, just like this:

● ● ● ■ ■ ■ ● ● ●

The Roman Signal Code

The ***Roman signal code*** or ***tap code***, sometimes called the ***knock code***, is a way to encode text messages on a letter-by-letter basis in a very simple way. The message is transmitted using a series of tap sounds, hence its name. The tap code is based on a "Polybius square", also known as the "Polybius chessboard", using a 5x5 grid of letters representing all the letters of the Roman alphabet, except for K, which is represented by C.

The ***Polybius chessboard***, or checkerboard is a device invented by the Ancient Greek historian and scholar Polybius (Polybios c.200-118 BC), for fractionating plaintext characters so that they can be represented by a smaller set of symbols. The Roman signal code is

the oldest and most effective code system in the world, already used throughout the Roman Empire and its borders, the Limes. Guards and soldiers could quickly send messages to Rome by mirror, lamp or flag signals that where send in a relay system across the empire. In modern times, the tap code has been commonly used by prisoners and by prisoners of war in the 19th and 20th centuries (in particular during World War II and the Vietnam War) to communicate with each other. The method of communicating is usually by tapping either the metal bars, pipes or the walls inside a cell.

The Polybius Board					
	1	2	3	4	5
1	A	B	C	D	E
2	F	G	H	I/J	K
3	L	M	N	O	P
4	Q	R	S	T	U
5	V	W	X	Y	Z

The Roman signal code is much easier to handle than the Morse code because all signals have the same length and a listener only needs to distinguish the timing of the taps to isolate letters. Each letter is then represented by its coordinates in the grid. For example, "**SOS**"

becomes "43 34 43". Because the 26 characters of the English alphabet do not quite fit in a square of 25, it is rounded down to the next lowest square number by combining two letters which are usually I and J or sometimes C and K. (Polybius had no such problem because the classical Greek alphabet has 24 letters). **Remember: Vertical number row 1st, Horizontal number row 2nd!**

Each letter is communicated by tapping two numbers

- the first designating the row
- the second designating the column

For example, to specify the letter "B", one taps once, pauses, and then taps twice.

Or to communicate the word "water", the cipher would be the following (the pause between each number in a pair is smaller than the pause between letters):

W	A	T	E	R
5, 2	1, 1	4, 4	1, 5	4, 2
••••••••	••	••••••••	••••••••	••••••••

By comparison, Morse code is harder to send by tapping or banging because it requires the ability to create two differently sounding taps (representing the dits and dahs of Morse code). A Morse code novice would also need to keep a "cheat sheet" until he or she remembers every letter's code, which the captors would likely confiscate. Tap code can be more easily decoded in one's head by mentally using the table. For example, if you hear four knocks, you would think A... F... L... Q as the count increased; then after the pause, you hear three

knocks and think Q... R... to arrive at the letter "S". The letter "X" is used to break up sentences (Stop!), and "K" for acknowledgements (O.K.).

Encoding and Decoding

In communications and information processing, **code** is a system of rules to convert information—such as a letter, word, sound, image, or gesture—into another form or representation. An early example is the invention of language which enabled a person, through speech, to communicate what he or she saw, heard, felt, or thought to others. But speech limits the range of communication to the distance a voice can carry, and limits the audience to those present when the speech is uttered. The invention of writing, which converted spoken language into visual symbols, extended the range of communication across space and time. The process of **encoding** converts information from a source into symbols for communication or storage. **Decoding** is the reverse process, converting code symbols back into a form that the recipient understands. One reason for coding is to enable communication in places where ordinary plain language, spoken or written, is difficult or impossible.

A typical example of **encoding grammar** could be the incoherent way grammarians and teachers name and present grammar features to students. Result: Grammar is considered a complicated and tiresome matter by learners. A typical example of **decoding grammar** is how I have presented the Verb grammar in the Henfield system: In an *entire overview* of the *whole system*, *named precisely* according to a regular and *logical system*, **and then** each detail explained bit by bit.

MUDDLE CHEST OF CONFUSING PHRASES AND WORDS

In English, we have lots of words and phrases whose usage we simply have to learn and get accustomed to. There are no easy-to-apply rules. Here you will find the stuff that brings you to the height and fluency. This chapter really will get you around and about.

There are dozens words that can occupy different functions. And the are functions that can be expressed in different ways. Here I show you why words like **the, this, that, as, all, each, every, one, any, some** seem so difficult to use, and you will see how we really use them. We will focus on forms and functions such as Determiners, Downtoners, Intensifiers, Clarifiers, Discourse markers,, Hedges, Vague expressions, Negatives, Negations, Double Negations, and so on. You will see plenty of examples for clarification.

INTENSIFIERS (VERY, AT ALL)

Intensifiers are Adverbs or Adverbial phrases that strengthen the meaning of other expressions and show emphasis. Words that we commonly use as intensifiers include absolutely, completely, extremely, highly, rather, really, so, too, totally, utterly, very and at all:

She was **so** upset. I felt extremely sorry for her.

She has a **very** strict teacher.

Don't work **too** hard. You'll get more done by relaxing a bit.

I don't think she understood the topic and her essay was **rather** a mess.

She's **really** offended her sister.

At all is a very common intensifier with negative expressions:

Are there no suitable DVDs **at all**?

I'm afraid I'm not **at all** interested.

We also use **on earth** and ever as intensifiers with wh-words:

What **on earth** is he doing? (suggests disapproval)

Why did I **ever** invite them to stay with us? (suggests that there were problems)

DOWNTONERS

Downtoners are words or phrases which reduce the force of another word or phrase. Downtoning is the opposite of emphasising. The most common downtoners are:

<i>a bit</i>	<i>a little bit, a tiny bit</i>	<i>hardly</i>	<i>slightly</i>
<i>a little</i>	<i>barely</i>	<i>(only) just</i>	<i>somewhat</i>

These downtoners are Adverbs, and we use them to modify verbs, Adjectives or other Adverbs:

I'm **a little bit** fed up with George – he's so selfish. (less strong than *I'm fed up with George.*)

I think he got **slightly** upset when we told him the news.

I was **barely** 16 years old when I joined the army.

You'll have to speak up. I can **only just** hear you.

The city has changed **somewhat** in the last ten years. (somewhat is more formal than the other words in the list.)

Downtoners: using vague language

We use vague language such as *kind of...*, *sort of ...* or the suffix **-ish** to reduce the force of a word or phrase:

Question: Are you hungry?

Answer: Well, **kind of**. (less strong than Yes.)

We use a downtoner with the ending **-ish** on many different occasions, particularly when we cannot be or do not want to be exact:

She had a **saddish** look on her face, I don't know why. (less strong than *She had a sad look on her face.*)

She shirt has a dark **reddish** tone (it is dark red but the exact name of that colour is unknown to the speaker)

We are going to meet at **tenish** or We are going to meet at ten **o'clockish** (it also could be several minutes before or after ten o'clock)

DISCOURSE MARKERS (SO, RIGHT, OKAY)

Discourse markers are words or phrases like *anyway, right, okay, as I say, to begin with*. We use them to connect, organise and manage what we say or write or to express attitude:

[friends are talking]

A: **So**, I've decided I'm going to go to the bank and ask for a car loan.

B: That sounds like a good idea.

C: **Well**, you need a car.

B: Right.

A: **Anyway**, I was wondering if either of you would teach me how to drive.

The discourse markers in this extract have a number of uses: *so* marks the beginning of a new part of the conversation.

well marks a change in the focus (from getting a car loan to needing a car).

right marks a response (B is agreeing with C).

anyway marks a shift in topic (from buying a new car to having driving lessons).

We use different discourse markers in speaking and writing. In speaking, the following discourse markers are very common:

<i>anyway</i>	<i>like</i>	<i>right</i>	<i>you know</i>
<i>fine</i>	<i>now</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>I mean</i>
<i>good</i>	<i>oh</i>	<i>well</i>	<i>as I say</i>
<i>great</i>	<i>okay</i>	<i>mind you</i>	<i>for a start</i>

In writing, the following discourse markers are common:

<i>firstly</i>	<i>in addition</i>	<i>to begin with</i>	<i>on the one hand</i>
<i>secondly</i>	<i>in conclusion</i>	<i>moreover</i>	<i>on the other hand</i>
<i>thirdly</i>	<i>in sum</i>		

Discourse markers do not always have meanings that you will find in your dictionary. However, they do have certain functions, and some discourse markers, such as *well*, can have a number of functions.

POLITENESS

Politeness is about keeping good relations with your listener or reader. There are two types of politeness

1. – showing the listener or reader that you value and respect them.
2. – changing or softening what you say so as not to be too direct or forceful.

Chinese learners find it very confusing that we English-speakers often talk in a "round-about way" as the Chinese language is much more direct without having any impolite meaning. So let us take a look how we express ourselves in a polite manner. I shall give you some ideas:

Politeness: showing respect

There are many ways in which we can show that we value and respect our listener or reader. In more formal situations, we are especially careful to use certain polite phrases:

[addressing an audience]

Ladies and gentlemen, please welcome **Mr** Patrick Murphy ...

[a waiter in a restaurant]

May I take your plate, **sir**?

[a message in a thank-you card]

Thank you for your wonderful gift.

[asking a stranger for directions]

Excuse me, I'm looking for Cathedral Street.

Not: Where's Cathedral Street?

In formal contexts when we don't know people and we want to show respect, we use titles such as *Mr* + family name, *Ms* + family name, *sir*, *madam*, *doctor (Dr)*, *professor (Prof.)*:

[checking out at a hotel reception desk]

A: Here's your credit card, **Mr** Watts. Have a safe trip.

B: Thank you.

[at a restaurant]

Shall I take your coat, **Madam**?

[emailing a professor that you don't know]

Dear **Prof.** Kinsella ... Not: Hi John ...

Politeness: making what we say less direct

When we speak and write, we usually try not to be too direct. There are a number of ways in which we can do this.

Softening words (Hedges)

We can use softening words or hedges to make what we say softer.

Compare

Direct Speech	Softer Speech
<i>It's cold in here. Let's close the window.</i>	<i>It's kind of cold in here, isn't it? Could we close the window?</i>
<i>Turn down the radio. (The imperative is very direct when used in requests.)</i>	<i>Could you just turn the radio down a little, please?</i>
<i>You must improve your playing. You need to spend more time working on the rhythm.</i>	<i>Your playing could possibly be improved. [giving someone criticism on their musical performance] You may need to spend more time working a little bit on the rhythm.</i>

Two-step questions

In speaking, we sometimes ask two questions rather than one so as to be less direct. The first question is an introduction for the listener and the second one asks a more specific question:

A: *Do you like sport? I mean, do you play sport?*

B: *Yeah. I play basketball. I'm on the school team.*

The first question introduces the topic of sport; the second one asks a more specific question about it. The listener answers the second question.

We sometimes use yes-no questions one after the other:

A: ***Is this your pen?***

B: *Yes, that's mine.*

A: ***Do you mind if I borrow it for a minute?***

B: *Not at all.*

This is less direct than asking *Can I borrow this pen?* as a question on its own.

Using names

We can make what we say more polite and less direct by using a person's name:

*What's the time, **Jim**?* (less direct than *What's the time?*)

*I'm not sure I agree with you, **Peter**.* (less direct than *I'm not sure I agree with you.*)

Politeness: what is impolite?

Being direct is impolite so we need to be careful when using direct forms.

The imperative form

In most contexts, the imperative is very direct and is usually impolite when used outside of family and friends:

[in a café] ~~Give me a coffee.~~

Polite form: *Could I have a coffee, please?*

[asking the time] ~~Tell me the time.~~

Polite form: *Would you mind telling me the time, please?*

However, it is acceptable to use an imperative in warnings, offers, written requests and when giving directions or instructions:

Mind your step!

Have another coffee.

Turn left once you get past the cinema. Then **take** a right along a narrow road ...

To stop in an emergency, **press** this button.

HEDGES

We use hedges to soften what we say or write. Hedges are an important part of **polite** conversation. They make what we say less direct. The most common forms of hedging involve tense and aspect, modal expressions including Modal Verbs and Adverbs, vague language such as *sort of* and *kind of*, and some verbs. And we use several different ways to sound polite and not too direct:

1. Tense and Aspect

Generally, the Past tense is considered more polite. Compare: *I **wondered** if I could have a word with you?* (less direct and more polite than *Could I have a word with you?* or even: *Can I have a word with you?*).

2. Modal Expressions

*The answer **could** be that the trees have some sort of disease.* (less direct than *The answer **is** that ...*)

***Maybe** we should have a word with him about it?* (less direct than *We should* or *we must have a word with him about it.*)

*This is **possibly** the best performance in the Olympics.*

3. Vague Language and its Expressions

*It's **sort of** difficult to say.* (less direct than *It's difficult to say*)

*Could you **just** post this letter for me?*

1. TENSE AND ASPECT

Sometimes we use a past Verb form when we refer to present time, in order to be more polite or less direct. We often do this with verbs such as *hope*, *think*, *want* and *wonder*. The Verb may be in the past simple, or, for extra politeness, in the past continuous:

A: *Where's the key to the back door?*

B: *I **was hoping** you **had** it.* (less direct than *I hope you have it.*)

*I **thought** you might want to rest for a while since it's been a long day.*

*I **wanted** to ask you a question.*

*I **am having** problems with my internet connection and I **was just wondering** if you could tell me how to fix it.* (less direct and forceful than *I have a problem with my internet connection and I wonder if you could tell me how to fix it.*)

Warning:

In formal contexts, we sometimes use past forms in questions, invitations and requests in the present so as to sound more polite:

***Did** you **want** another coffee?*

*I **thought** you might like some help.*

*We **were** rather **hoping** that you would stay with us.*

In shops and other service situations, servers often use past Verb forms to be polite:

Assistant: *What **was** the name please?*

Customer: *Perry, P-E-R-R-Y.*

Assistant: ***Did** you **need** any help, madam?*

Customer: *No, thanks. I'm just looking.*

If and politeness

In speaking, we often use *if* followed by *will*, *would*, *can* or *could* to introduce a polite request:

***If** we can move on to the next point for discussion.* (more polite than *Can we move on ...*)

***If** I could just say one more thing ...* (more polite than *Listen to me, I want to say something.*)

***If** you will follow me, please.* (more polite than *Follow me, please.*)

We use other expressions with *if* to express politeness: *if you don't mind*, *if it's OK with you*, *if I may say so*, *if it'll help*:

***If you don't mind**, I think I need that cup of tea.*

*I'll stay here, **if it's OK with you**.*

2. MODAL EXPRESSIONS

We can use certain Modal Verbs, especially the past forms of the Modal Verbs *will*, *shall*, *can*, and *may* (*would*, *should*, *could*, *might*, and *ought*), to be more polite or less direct.

We can also use other modal expressions (*certainly*, *possibility*, *be likely to*, *be supposed to be*). We often do this when we ask for something or ask someone to do something: ***Might** I ask if you are related to Mrs Bowdon?* (rather formal and more polite/less direct than *May I ask ...?*)

***Would** you follow me, please, sir?* (more polite/less direct than *Will you follow me ...?*)

***Would** you mind moving your car, please?*

A: **Could** you take a look at my laptop? It's taking so long to start up.
 B: Well I'll **certainly** take a look. Is there a **possibility** that it might have a virus?
 A: Well, the anti-virus is **supposed to be** up to date.
 You **are likely to** feel stressed before your exam. (less direct than *You will feel stressed before your exam.*)

3. VAGUE LANGUAGE AND ITS EXPRESSIONS

Vague language is very common, especially in speaking. We often add words and phrases such as *about, kind of, sort of, and that kind of thing* to make what we say less factual and direct:

*There were **about** twenty people at the meeting.*
*It's **kind of** cold in here.*
*Did you see lions and giraffes **and that kind of thing** when you were in South Africa?*

Approximate Time

We generally use vague language when we don't know the name of something, or to make things sound less factual, or to talk about groups and categories.

We make times and quantities sound less direct and less exact:

A: *Are you coming for dinner tomorrow night?*
 B: *Absolutely. What time is best for you?*
 A: ***Any time around eight** would be perfect.*
*It's **about seven o'clock** so **I think** we should be leaving **soon**.* (less direct than *It's seven o'clock so we should be leaving now.*)
 A: *What colour is your dress?*
 B: *It's **kind of** green and brown, with **a few** gold buttons on the front.*

When we do not know the name of something

We use these vague expressions when we are not sure of the name of something: *what do you call it?, what's it called?, it's a kind of X, it's a sort of X, it's a type of X, or something, thing, stuff.*
 A: *Val's been in hospital for tests. Did you know that?*
 B: *No. What's wrong?*

A: *Well, they're not sure. She's had to have that test, er, **what do you call it?** Where you have to go into a type of X-ray machine.*
 B: *A CAT scan?*
 A: *Yeah. She's had that done but they still don't know what's causing her headaches. She has got a small dog, a kind of poodle, **or something**.*
*What's that **stuff** you use when your lips get dry?*
*Where's the **thing** for cleaning the window?*
 Attention:
 In very informal spoken English, for "*what do you call it / him / her / them*" you sometimes hear versions that might sound like this: /'wɒtʃəmækɔ:lɪt/, /'wɒtʃəmækɔ:lɪm/, /'θɪŋəmi/, /'θɪŋəmədʒɪg/. We never write these words:
 A: *Andrew's just moved in with what ya ma call him /'wɒtʃəmækɔ:lɪm/?*
 B: *Robert?*
 A: *No, his friend from Manchester.*

Using Verbs (FEEL)

Some verbs (such as *feel, suppose, reckon*) can be used to hedge personal statements, that is, to make personal statements less direct:
*We **feel** he should let them decide whether to buy the flat.* (less direct than *He should let them decide ...*)
*I **reckon** that's the best answer to the problem.* (less direct than *That's the best answer to the problem.*)

Hedges in academic writing

We use certain types of hedging in writing, especially in academic writing, so that statements don't seem to rely simply on personal opinion.
 We often use structures with *it* in the passive such as *it is argued that* and *it has been agreed that*:
***It has been generally agreed that** these new video phone technologies will transform everyday life.* (a more cautious and less personal statement than *I agree that ...*)

Making things sound less factual

Being very factual can sometimes sound too direct in speaking, and so we add vague expressions. These are called hedges: *about, kind of, sort of, -ish* (suffix), *stuff, things*:

There is **sort of** something I don't like about her. (more direct: *There's something I don't like about her.*)

It's **kind of** bright in here. (more direct: *It is too bright in here.*)

I cannot meet up later. I have too much **stuff** to do.

I forget so many **things** these days.

We especially use vague expressions before numbers, quantities and times to make them sound less factual:

I'll see you at **about** 8 tomorrow morning for breakfast. Is that okay? (more direct: *I'll see you at 8 tomorrow morning for breakfast.*)

We expect to take **in or around** two years to complete the project. (more direct: *We expect to take two years and four months to complete the project.*)

We are meeting Veronica at **four-ish**. (more direct: *We are meeting Veronica at four.*)

We've been living here for **more or less** five years. (more direct: *We've been living here for five years and three months.*)

Talking about groups and categories

We use certain vague expressions to make groups or categories. We usually give examples of members of the group or category (underlined below) and then add a vague expression, e.g. *necklaces, bracelets* **and things like that**.

Common vague expressions include:

1. *and that kind of thing and stuff like that*
2. *and that sort of thing and stuff*
3. *and that type of thing and so on*
4. *and things like that and this, that and the other*
5. *and the like*

Where are all the knives and forks **and that kind of thing**?

I need to buy cards and wrapping paper **and stuff like that**.

A: Where's Emma?

B: *She's gone to the doctor. She's been getting pains in her stomach and feeling tired **and things like that**.*

He never eats chocolate, sweets **and that type of thing**.

There are so many lorries and trucks **and that sort of thing** passing by our house, even during the night.

We sometimes find vague category expressions in formal speaking, but we usually use different expressions, such as: *and so forth, et cetera, and so on, and so on and so forth*. [from a university lecture on literature]

*The book has often been looked at from a feminist perspective **and so forth** but I want to look at it from a political perspective today.*

[from a university lecture on communication]

*If you use an advertisement in the newspaper, a thirty-second ad on television **et cetera et cetera**, it will receive quite a wide audience but there's relatively little you can say in it. (ad = advertisement)*

*What are your views on the new government and the changes they have made **and so forth**?*

We sometimes use vague category expressions in writing. The most common ones are: **and so on** and the Roman phrase **et cetera** (which is shortened to *etc.*)

*The new theatre will be used for big events such as opera, ballet, drama **and so on**.*

*The house is equipped with a cooker, washing machine, television, **etc.***

When can vague expressions be impolite?

Sometimes people use *whatever* in a sarcastic or disrespectful way, usually saying it in an exaggerated way, to show they are not interested (for example, with exaggerated intonation).

Expressions such as *stuff* and *whatever, whoever, whenever, whichever* are sometimes used to be vague in an impolite way. These are especially impolite when they are used in a reply to a direct question asked by someone who is senior to us:

[a father to his son]

A: *What did you do at school today?*

B: **Stuff**. (This is not a polite reply. It can mean 'I do not want to talk to you'.)

[parent to teenage daughter]

A: *You spend too long on the phone.*

B: **Whatever**. (This very impolite response means 'I don't care'.)

[two friends talking]

A: *We are meeting around seven at Mel's place.*

B: *No, it is at six thirty.*

A: *Well, **whenever**.* (This is not as impolite, because it is between friends. A uses *whenever* to show that she is annoyed that she has been contradicted about the time and that it doesn't really matter whether it's six thirty or seven.)

HOWEVER, WHATEVER, WHICHEVER, WHENEVER, WHEREVER, WHOEVER

It doesn't matter HOW, WHAT, WHEN, etc.

If we add -ever to *wh*-words like *how*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *where* and *who*, we change their meaning.

Form	Meaning
<i>however</i>	'any way at all' or 'it doesn't matter how'
<i>whatever</i>	'anything at all' or 'it doesn't matter what'
<i>whichever</i>	'any one at all' or 'it doesn't matter which'
<i>whenever</i>	'any time at all' or 'it doesn't matter when'
<i>wherever</i>	'any place at all' or 'it doesn't matter where'
<i>whoever</i>	'any person at all' or 'it doesn't matter who'

However *you try to explain it, I still can't understand it.* (Any way at all that you try to explain it ... /It doesn't matter how you try ...)

*Please take **whatever** you want from the fridge if you feel hungry.* (anything at all that you want)

Whatever *you do, don't lose this key.*

*Choose **whichever** time suits you best then write your name against that time on the list.*

*Call in **whenever** you like. I'm always at home.* (at any time at all that you like)

Wherever *you live, you have the right to a good postal service.* (it doesn't matter where you live)

Whoever *you ask, you will get the same answer: no.* (any person you ask/it doesn't matter who you ask)

Emphasising questions

We can use *wh*-words with -ever to ask very emphatic questions. In speaking, we stress -ever:

However *will you manage to live on such a small income?* (stronger than *How will you manage ...?*)

*Charlie, **whatever** are you doing?* (stronger than *What are you doing?*)

Whenever *are you going to stop complaining? You're getting on everyone's nerves!*

Being vague: WHATEVER, WHENEVER, WHEREVER, WHOEVER

We can use *whatever*, *whenever*, *wherever* and *whoever* alone to refer in a non-specific way to people and things:

A: *Shall I send you all the dates and times?*

B: Yes, ***whatever***. *That would be useful. Thanks.* (it doesn't matter what you send)

A: *What time shall I come?*

B: ***Whenever***, *really.* (no specific time/it doesn't matter)

CLAUSE TYPES

There are four basic types of main clause: A. **Declaratives** (statements), B. **Interrogatives** (questions), C. **Exclamatives** (used for exclamations). and D. **Imperatives** (orders/instructions)

In the examples below, x is any other element in the clause (e.g. object, predicative complement):

A. DECLARATIVE CLAUSES

Declarative clauses most commonly function as statements. The usual word order is Subject (s) + Verb (v) + x. Declaratives can be affirmative or negative. They make statements about how things are and how they are not.

Affirmative	Negative
[S][V]I saw [X]them last week.	[S]I [V]didn't see [X]them last week.
[S]Some courses [V]begin [X]in January.	[S]Some courses [V]don't begin [X]until March.

Sometimes we use declaratives as questions or requests:

A: **Those are the only tickets left?** (question)

B: Yes, just those two.

A: **You could pass me the spoon.** That would be helpful. (request)

B: This one?

B. INTERROGATIVE CLAUSES

Interrogative clauses most commonly function as questions. The usual word order is (wh-word) + auxiliary/Modal Verb (aux/m) + Subject + Verb + x:

What [AUX] [S]are you [V]doing?

[AUX]Does [S]she [V]play [X]tennis well?

[M]Can [S] [V]I come [X]with you?

Interrogative clauses can be affirmative or negative.

Affirmative	Negative
Are there any blue ones?	Aren't there any blue ones?
Why did he tell me?	Why didn't he tell me?

C. EXCLAMATIVE CLAUSES

Exclamative clauses usually have one of the following word orders:

What + Noun + Subject + verb

How + Adjective or Adverb + Subject + verb

Auxiliary or Modal Verb + Subject + Verb (i.e. interrogative word order)

We use exclamative clauses most commonly to express surprise or shock. In writing we use an exclamation mark:

What a lovely sister you are!

How beautiful that house was!

Wasn't she great!

Didn't he sing well!

Suggestions

If we make a suggestion, it means that we mention a possible course of action to someone. There are a number of expressions which we can use to make suggestions.

How about/what about + -ing?

How about starting a book club?

What about opening your present now?

How about + present simple?

A: **How about** I pick you up at eight o'clock on my way to the airport?

B: Great. I'll see you then.

We often use *how about* and *what about* + Noun phrase when we make suggestions about food or drink. These suggestions are invitations:

A: Are you hungry?

B: Yeah, **how about** some lunch?

What about a coffee?

WHY NOT ...? and WHY DON'T ...?

We can use *why not* to make a general suggestion. We often find it in advertising:

Why not take a break in the south-west?

Why not treat yourself to a meal at the Icon Restaurant?

We can use *why don't ...?* to make a specific suggestion:

You look really tired. **Why don't** you take some time out and rest?

It's getting late in the evening now. **Why don't** we stop now and work on this tomorrow morning?

LET'S ... and LET'S NOT ...

We use *let's (let us)* to make suggestions about doing something with someone:

Let's call Michael and see if he knows how to fix it.

Let's make a curry tonight.

We use *let's not* to make negative suggestions:

Let's not argue about this.

Let's not spend all night talking about my problems.

COULD

We often use phrases with *could* to make suggestions. Some are neutral, some are strong. The negative form, *couldn't*, is stronger than the affirmative form:

Strong

A: I only have three chairs. There will be four of us for dinner.

B: **Couldn't** you use the one in your bedroom?

A: I need to finish this essay by tonight.

B: **Couldn't** you get up early in the morning to finish it?

Neutral

A: I have nothing to wear to the party.

B: **You could** wear your red dress and your black shoes.

A: We'll need to have at least £300 for the concert tickets, the accommodation and the train.

B: **We could** cut lawns and wash cars and that kind of thing. Or **we could** borrow the money from our parents and pay them back.

CAN'T YOU ...?

We can use *can't you* to make a strong suggestion. It can sound very direct when it is addressed to someone who is present:

[mother to child]

Can't you finish your homework before going?

[a woman is talking about her husband who wants a new television]

A: I think our television is fine. I don't want it to be replaced really.

B: Mm.

A: And he'll want one of those wide screens.

B: Oh dear. **Can't he** manage with the one you have?

I THOUGHT WE MIGHT / COULD

We can use phrases with *I thought we might* or *I thought we could* to make weak suggestions, especially when we don't want to sound too forceful:

On Saturday, **I thought we might** go to town and see the Farmers' Market and then **I thought we could** have lunch in a nice little café by the river.

YOU COULD ALWAYS

We can use the phrase *you could always* or *we could always* to make weak suggestions:

A: Oh no! We're out of olive oil.

B: **We could always** use butter. I know it's not as healthy, but it'll taste good.

THERE'S ALWAYS

We use the phrase *there's always* to make very weak suggestions. It is sometimes used when someone is trying to cheer someone up or trying to be funny:

A: How did it go?

B: We lost four nil. That's it for this year. We're out of the championship now.

A: Don't worry. **There's always** next year.

[friends are chatting about the Beatles; Paul and Ringo are the names of two of its members]

A: I always liked Paul.

B: I once dreamt that I married Ringo.

A: Oh no! That was a nightmare!

C: ***There's always*** divorce!

We also use *suggest* and *shall* to make suggestions.

D. IMPERATIVE CLAUSES

We use Imperative clauses when we want to tell someone to do or not to do something (most commonly for advice, suggestions, requests, commands, orders or instructions). We use the base form of the Verb and the usual word order is Verb + Object or Complement.

Have fun! Enjoy your meal! Stop talking and open your books! Don't be late! Come on. Hurry up! Leave me alone! Let's go. Put it in the microwave for two minutes!

Imperative clauses can be affirmative or negative. We make negative imperatives with the Helper Verb *do* + *not*. The contracted form *don't* is very common in speaking:

Affirmative	Negative
<i>Go!</i>	<i>Do not go!</i>
<i>Leave the door open!</i>	<i>Do not leave the door open!</i>

Attention:

We use the Imperative carefully. It is a very direct form and we do not generally use it to make requests or commands or to give instructions.

We can use ***just***, ***please***, or ***if you would not mind*** to make an Imperative sound less direct:

Open the window a little more, please, if you wouldn't mind!

Not: ~~*Open the window.*~~ (too direct)

[Two friends]

A: *Ann, are you ready?*

B: ***Just*** give me a minute, ***please!***

Imperatives with Subject Pronoun

For emphasis, we can use *you* in an Imperative clause:

[a student and a teacher]

A: *Can I leave the room?*

B: No. ***You stay*** here.

<i>Be happy!</i>	<i>Don't be sad!</i>
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Warning:

Sometimes we use ***you*** (Subject Pronoun) with an Imperative clause to make a command stronger or to strengthen a contrast. Be careful, it can sometimes sound very direct and impolite:

*Don't ***you*** ever read my letters again!*

You wash, I'll dry! [talking about washing up dishes]

Particularly in speaking, we can use an indefinite Subject (such as: *someone*, *somebody*, *no one*, *nobody*, *everyone*, *everybody*) with an imperative:

No one move. ***Everyone*** stay still!

Everybody sit down, please.

Somebody call a doctor. Quick!

Invitations

We often use an imperative to make an offer or invitation:

Have some more cake. *There's plenty there!*

Imperatives with DO

When we use the emphatic Helper Verb ***do***, it makes an Imperative sound more polite and more formal:

[at the beginning of a meal]

Do start. (formal)

Do sit down and make yourself comfortable.

Do not use the lift in the event of fire! [a public notice]

Don't tell anyone that I was here.

We can use *don't* on its own in short responses:

A: *Shall I show everyone the old photo of you?*

B: No, **don't**. *The photo is terrible!*

We can use emphatic *do* in short answers without a main verb:

A: *Can I use your phone to call a taxi?*

B: **Do**, of course, by all means. *It's there on the desk.*

Negative Imperatives

To make negative Imperatives, we use the Helper Verb *do* + *not* + Infinitive without **to**.

The full form *do not*, is rather formal. In speaking, we usually use *don't*:

We use **do not** in more formal contexts:

[instructions on a jar of coffee]

Do not make coffee with boiling water.

We can use the short form **don't** as an imperative answer, or as a reaction to something:

A: *Shall I open the window?*

B: No, **don't**. *I'm freezing!* (No, don't open the window!)

Negative Imperatives With Subject Pronoun

We can use emphatic Pronoun *you* or *anyone/anybody* after *don't* in negative imperatives, especially in informal speaking:

Don't you worry. *Everything will be okay.*

It's a surprise party so don't anybody mention it to Jim.

Question Tags Commonly Used After Imperatives

We sometimes use question tags with imperatives. They make the imperative less direct:

Turn on the light, will you?

Ask him, can you?

Won't you? adds more emphasis to the imperative:

Write to me, won't you?

The tag after a negative imperative is normally *will you*:

Don't tell anyone, will you?

Imperatives as Offers and Invitations

We can use Imperatives to make offers and invitations:

Have another piece of melon.

Please stay another night. You know you'll be most welcome.

Go on! Come to the match with us tonight.

Don't be afraid to ask if you want anything.

Commands and Instructions

Giving Commands

We often use an imperative in commands, and we also use *must*. They both sound very direct:

[in class]

Stop talking now!

[a father to his child]

Don't press that button.

[a mother to a child]

You must wear a coat. It's raining.

There are a number of ways of making commands sound more polite. We can add *please* at the end of what we say, or we can use a question form to make a command sound more like a request, or we can use *I'd like you to* + infinitive or *I'd be grateful if you'd* + infinitive without *to*:

Ask Max to sign this form and then send it off immediately please, Gwyn. [a boss to an assistant]

Will you bring us the files on the Hanley case please, Maria?

I'd like you to bring us four coffees at eleven when we take a break in the meeting.

I'd be grateful if you didn't tell anyone about this.

Public Notices

Public notices often give direct commands using **no**, **do not** or **must**:

No entry! Do not enter! You must not enter!

Giving instructions

We use instructions to tell someone how to do something. We usually use imperatives. They do not sound too direct in this context:

[in a cookery class]

Beat four eggs, like this. Then **add** the flour gradually. **Don't beat** the eggs too much though.

[instructions on how to replace a missing button]

Thread your needle with a piece of thread about 25 cm long. **Mark** the spot where you want the button. **Insert** the needle from the back of the fabric and **bring** it through ...

Spoken English:

In speaking, we often use the present simple when we are giving instructions and demonstrations, and we say *like so* meaning 'like this':

You fold the A4 piece of paper **like so**. Then **you glue** some shapes onto this side and **sprinkle** some glitter on it **like so**.

Imperatives with LET

Spoken English:

In speaking we usually use *let's* for first person Plural imperatives (*us*) to make a suggestion. In more formal situations we use *let us*:

Let's go and eat.

Now, **let us** all get some sleep. (more formal)

For third person imperatives (*him, her, it, them*) we form an imperative clause with *let*:

A: Mr Thomas is here to see you. Shall I send him in?

B: **Let him** wait. I'm busy.

Imperatives with LET (LET'S)

We use *let* to form first person and third person imperatives.

First person (LET ME, LET US)

Let me see. What should I do?

Let's start at nine-thirty tomorrow, please. Okay?

Warning:

In more formal contexts, we use the full form *let us*:

[at the beginning of a meeting]

Let us begin by welcoming our new members.

We can use emphatic *do* with *let's* in formal contexts:

Do let's try to be more environmentally friendly.

Very often we use *let's* (*let us*) when we are referring to the first person singular (*me*):

I cannot find my keys. Let's see, where did I last have them? (or **Let me** see, ...)

We can use **let's** on its own in short responses, meaning 'yes', when we respond to a suggestion:

A: Shall we stop now and have a coffee break?

B: **Let's.**

Third Person

Third person imperatives are not common; they are formed with *let* + *him/her/it* or a

Noun phrase:

[B is joking]

A: How will Patrick know which house is ours?

B: Let **him** knock on all the doors until he finds ours!

Negative Imperative of LET'S

We often use the phrase *let's not*: **Let's not forget** to lock the door!

We sometimes use *don't let's* in more formal contexts:

Don't let's mention anything about her husband. I think they've split up.

LET: Permission

We use *let* to talk about permission. *Let* is followed by an Object and an infinitive without *to*:

She **let me** look at the photos.

Not: ~~She let me to look ...~~

She'd live on pizzas if we **let her**.

Warning:

We don't use **let** in the Passive Voice with this meaning:

They did not let us take photographs inside the theatre. (or *We were not allowed to take photographs ...*)

Not: ~~We weren't let (to) take photographs~~

LET'S, LET: Suggestions, Offers, Imperatives

Let us is the first person Plural imperative, which we only use in very formal situations.

Let's is the short form, which we often use to make suggestions which include ourselves:

*It's midday. **Let's** stop now and have some lunch, shall we?*

Not: ~~Lets stop now~~ ...

*Okay. We're all ready. **Let's** go.*

We also use *let me* (the first person singular imperative) to give a direct, more formal suggestion or offer:

***Let me** move these books out of your way.*

We use *let* for third person imperatives and for impersonal imperatives:

***Let** them walk home on their own.* (third person)

***Let** there be no doubt about it.* (impersonal)

There are two negative forms of *let's*: *let's not* and *don't let's*. *Let's not* is more common:

***Let's not** argue about money. We can share the costs.*

***Don't let's** throw away the good books with the damaged ones. We can sell them.*

We can use the full forms *let us*, *let us not* and *do not let us* in very formal situations such as political documents and speeches, and religious and other ceremonies:

***Let us** remember all those who have died in this terrible conflict.*

*We must forgive, but **let us not** forget, what happened on that day ten years ago.*

***Do not let us** deceive ourselves that our economic problems can be easily solved.*

LET meaning 'rent'

We use *let* with a direct Object meaning 'rent something to someone':

*They've **let** their house for the whole summer.*

NEGATION

When we want to say that something is not true or is not the case, we can use negative words, phrases or clauses. Negation can happen in a number of ways, most commonly, when we use a negative word such as *no*, *not*, *never*, *none*, *nobody*, etc:

Question: Is there a bus at ten o'clock?

Answer: **No**. *The last one goes at nine forty-five.* (*No* = There isn't a bus at ten o'clock.)

*Kieran **doesn't** play the piano.* (It is not true that Kieran plays the piano.)

The most common negative words are *no* and *not*. Other negative words include:

neither, never, no one, nobody, none, nor, nothing, nowhere.

*She's **never** been abroad.*

*There were **no** newspapers left in the shop by one o'clock.*

***Nobody** came to the house for several days.*

***None** of my cousins live near us.*

*Most children **don't** walk to school any more.*

We can also make negative meanings using Prefixes (e.g. *de-*, *dis-*, *un-*) and suffixes (-less):

*He was very **disrespectful** to the teacher.*

*This new printer is **useless**; it's always breaking down.*

We can also use the following words to make negative or negative-like statements:

few, hardly, little, rarely, scarcely, seldom.

*There are **rarely** ducks in this pond.*

*We **seldom** hear any noise at night.*

Negation is more common in spoken than in written language because negative forms can be used in face-to-face interactions to make what we say less direct:

***I'm not sure** if this is the right desk. I am looking for information on the train times to Liverpool.* (less direct than *Is this the right desk?*)

Forming negative statements, questions and imperatives

Negative statements

We form negative statements with **not** or **n't** after *be*, modal and auxiliary verbs. *n't* is the contracted form of *not*. In informal language we can add *n't*, without a space, to *be*, to Modal Verbs (except *may*) and to auxiliary verbs (*do* and *have*). The negative contracted form of *will* is *won't*. The uncontracted form of *can* + *not* is *cannot*.

Jane **is not** coming. She is not feeling very well.
 She **might not** be joking. It could be true.
 They **don't** go to school on Wednesday afternoons.
 Living in a small flat **does not** make it easy to have pets.
 I **had not** decided whether to take the train or go in the car.
 They **cannot** be hungry again. They've only just eaten.

Negative questions

We use *not* or *n't* to form negative questions. When there is no Modal Verb or *be*, we use Helper Verb **do** + **n't** (*don't*, *do not*, *doesn't*, *does not*, *didn't*) Be careful when using contractions! Note the different word order of full forms and contractions:
 Why **didn't** you ask Linda? = Why **did** you **not** ask Linda?
 What **don't** you understand? = What **do** you **not** understand?
Won't we able to see the film? = **Will** we **not** be able to see the film?
Isn't that Mike's brother? = **Is** that **not** Mike's brother?

Negative Imperatives

We use *do* + *not* or *don't* + the base form of a Verb to form negative orders or commands:
Do not open until instructed.
Don't take the car. Go on your bike.

Negation: two negatives

Standard English does not have two negatives in the same clause (double negatives). Words such as *never*, *nobody*, *no one*, *none*, *nothing*, *nowhere*, etc. already have a negative meaning, so we don't need another negative with the verb:
 There was **no one** in the office so I left a message.
 Not: There wasn't no one ...
Nobody likes to think they are worthless.
 Not: Nobody doesn't like to think ...

If we use *not* with the verb, we use words such as *ever*, *anybody*, *anyone*, *anything*, *anywhere*, instead of *never*, *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*, *nowhere*:

I **haven't** seen Ken **anywhere** today. In fact I **don't** think **anyone's** seen him for the last couple of days.

Not: I haven't seen Ken nowhere ... or I don't think no one's seen him ...

You may hear some speakers using two negatives in the same clause, but many people consider this to be incorrect.

NOT ... I DON'T THINK

There are some cases where we can use reporting verbs such as *imagine*, *suppose* and *think* in end position, after the reported clause. In such cases, both clauses may have a negative verb:

He's **not** a teacher, I **don't** think. (or I **don't think** he's a teacher.)

Not: I don't think he's not a teacher.

I **won't** be very late tonight, I **shouldn't** imagine. (or I **shouldn't imagine** I'll be very late tonight.)

Not: I shouldn't imagine I won't be late.

Sometimes we use *not* in front position where a following reduced clause (a clause with something omitted but which is understood) also has a negative form:

A: Have you seen Leila?

B: **Not** today, I **haven't**. (I haven't seen Leila/her.)

A: Is Tony working at the university?

B: **Not** now, he **isn't**. He used to.

Negative clauses with any, anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere

We do not use *not* with *some*, *someone*, *somebody*, *something*, *somewhere* in statements. We use *any*, *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, *anywhere*:

There **aren't any** seats left. You'll have to stand.

Not: There aren't some seats left.

Tell them I **don't** want to see **anyone**.

Not: Tell them I don't want to see someone.

After verbs with a negative meaning like *decline* or *refuse*, we use *anything* rather than *something*:

They refused to tell us **anything** about it. (preferred to They refused to tell us something about it.)

Negation in non-finite clauses

Non-finite clauses are clauses without a subject, where the main Verb is in the *to*-infinitive form, the *-ing* form or the *-ed* form. To make the negative of a non-finite clause, we can use *not*.

Compare (non-finite clauses are underlined)

Affirmative Non-Finite Clause	Negative Non-Finite Clause
<u>To have given up</u> such a good job would have been foolish.	<u>Not to have invited</u> James to our little party would have been impolite.
<u>Thinking</u> of my own situation, I decided it was time to talk to Dennis.	She left the house very quietly, <u>not wishing</u> to alarm anyone.
<u>Cooked</u> in a slow oven, this dish is delicious with baked potatoes.	<u>Not funded</u> by any government grants, the research team have to raise money from companies and individuals.

In non-finite clauses with a *to*-infinitive verb, we can use *not* after *to*. However, many speakers consider such 'split infinitives' (where something comes between *to* and the verb) to be bad style:

To not realise what was happening was stupid. She should have noticed something was wrong. (or **Not to realise** what was happening ...)

I was thinking it would be nice **to not have to** go out and just stay in and watch TV. (or ... it would be nice **not to have to** go out ...)

Negative Prefixes and Suffixes

We use these Prefixes most commonly in negation: *de-*, *dis-*, *il-/im-/in-/ir-*, *mis-*, *non-*, *un-*:

What he said was very **impolite**.

There was a **misunderstanding** about who should sign the contract.

The refugees also need **non-food** items such as tents and blankets. (items which are not food)

-less is the most common suffix for negation:

Too many people are **homeless** in this city.

We just have **endless** meetings at work – they're so boring.

Negative Adverbs: **HARDLY**, **SELDOM**, etc.

Some Adverbs (e.g. *hardly*, *little*, *never*, *only*, *scarcely* and *seldom*) have a negative meaning. When we use these at the beginning of the clause, we invert the Subject and verb:

Hardly had we left the hotel when it started to pour with rain.

Not: ~~Hardly~~ we had left the hotel ...

Little did we know that we would never meet again.

Only in spring do we see these lovely little flowers.

We also invert the Subject and Verb after *not* + a prepositional phrase or *not* + a clause in front position:

Not for a moment did I think I would be offered the job, so I was amazed when I got it.

Not till I got home did I realise my wallet was missing.

Negation: emphasising

When we want to emphasise something negative, we often use *at all*. We normally use *at all* immediately after the word or phrase we are emphasising:

There's **nothing at all** left in the fridge.

I'd rather **not** be here **at all**.

We had **no** rain **at all** this summer and now we have floods!

Not at all can come before an Adjective:

She was **not at all** happy with the result.

We can also use *whatsoever* for emphasis after *no* + Noun, *nobody*, *no one*, *none* and *nothing*. Its meaning is similar to *at all*, but it is stronger. We can use *whatsoever* to add emphasis to any negative Noun phrase:

No food or drink **whatsoever** must be brought into the classroom.

A: Did any of her family go to the wedding?

B: No. **None whatsoever**.

We can also use *not a bit*, *a little bit*, *one bit*, *in the least*, *the least bit* to emphasise negatives:

Setting off the alarm was supposed to be a joke but **no one** found it **one bit** funny.

We suggested going to the cinema but they **didn't** seem **the least bit** interested, so we just took them shopping instead.

We often add emphasis to negation to make what we say more polite. When someone makes a request using the phrase *Do you mind if* or *Would you mind if*, instead of replying with *No* (I don't mind) we often say *not at all* or *not in the least* when we reply:

A: *Do you mind if I sit here?*

B: ***Not at all.***

A: *Would you mind if I check my emails on your computer?*

B: ***Not in the least.***

When someone says *thanks* or *thank you*, we often reply *not at all*:

A: *Thanks so much for lunch, Rachel.*

B: ***Not at all.*** *It was my pleasure.*

Negation of THINK, BELIEVE, SUPPOSE, HOPE

When we use Verbs like *think*, *believe*, *suppose* (mental process verbs) to express uncertainty about something, we usually use *not* with the mental process Verb rather than with the Verb in the following clause:

*I **don't think** I'm going to pass my exams.* (preferred to *I think I'm not going to pass my exams.*)

However, we don't normally use a negative with *hope* and *wish*:

*I **hope** I'm **not** going to fail.*

Not: ~~*I don't hope I'm going to fail.*~~

*I **wish** I **hadn't** sent that email to Joan.*

Not: ~~*I don't wish I had sent ...*~~

Double negatives and their usage

In standard English, when we use negative words such as *nobody*, *nowhere*, *never* or *nothing*, we do not commonly use a negative Verb:

*He had **nothing** interesting to tell us.*

Not: ~~*He hadn't nothing interesting...*~~

*It was 10 am but there was **nobody** in the office.*

Not: ~~*... but there wasn't nobody in the office.*~~

However, we hear double and triple negatives spoken in some regional dialects of English all the world over. This is common when people from the same region are speaking with one another. Double negatives like this are not acceptable in formal situations or in writing.

Compare

Non-Standard Dialect	Standard English
<i>We couldn't never work with nobody like that.</i>	<i>We couldn't ever work with anybody like that.</i>
<i>He never says nothing interesting to no one.</i>	<i>He never says anything interesting to anyone.</i>

Double negation with Adjectives and Adverbs (not unexpected)

However, we can use *not* + an Adjective or Adverb with a negative Prefix (e.g. *un-*, *in-*) as a way of softening or downtoning the meaning of the Adjective. The meaning becomes affirmative, but the double negation shows that the writer/speaker is cautious about it. This is most common in formal writing:

*This year's rise in inflation to 3% was **not unexpected**.* (This year's rise in inflation to 3% was expected to some extent.)

*The crisis has been attributed, **not unreasonably**, to the Prime Minister's weakness.*

A: *The repair cost fifty pounds.*

B: *Oh well, that's **not unreasonable**.*

NO-ONE, NOBODY, NOTHING, NOWHERE

No-one, *nobody*, *nothing* and *nowhere* are indefinite Pronouns.

We use *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing* and *nowhere* to refer to an absence of people, things or places. We use them with a singular verb:

***Nobody** ever goes to see her. She's very lonely.*

*You usually have to wait for a long time. **Nothing** happens quickly.*

*There was **nowhere** to park the car.*

We often use the Plural Pronoun *they* to refer back to (singular) *no one* or *nobody* when we do not know if the person is male or female:

***No-one** remembers the titles of the books they've read.*

NO-ONE or NOBODY?

No one and *nobody* mean the same. *Nobody* is a little less formal than *no one*. We use *no one* more than *nobody* in writing:

*I knew **nobody** at the party.*

***No-one** moved; **no one** said anything.*

We write *no one* as two separate words or with a hyphen: *no one* or *no-one* but not ~~noone~~.

NOBODY or NOT ... ANYBODY, etc.

Nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere are stronger and more definite than *not ... anybody/anyone/anything/anywhere*:

*I did **nothing**.* (stronger than *I didn't do anything*.)

*She told **no one**, not even her mother.* (stronger than *She didn't tell anyone ...*)

We do not use *not + anyone / anything / anywhere* as the Subject of a clause:

Nothing will make me change my mind.

Not: ~~Not anything will make me change my mind.~~

We do not use *nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere* after *no, not, never* or other words which have a negative meaning (*hardly, seldom*). We use *anyone, anybody, anything, anywhere*:

*I **cannot** do **anything**.*

Not: ~~I can't do nothing.~~

*She talks to **hardly anyone**.*

Not: ~~She talks to hardly no one.~~

O.K., okay, o.k., ok

O.K. is an artificial word that probably has two origins and has appeared in 18th century *New York* (the former Dutch colony *Nieuw Amsterdam*); its spelling may have come from the strictly phonetic Dutch way of writing "OI Korrekt" for All Correct. The initials of that word have become popular in the United States due to the foundation of the O.K. Club in 1840 by which its members have supported "Martin van Buren for U.S. president." The initials O.K. stand also for *Old Kinderhook*, *van Buren's* birthplace in New York, and have swiftly become a nickname for *Martin van Buren* himself, as the slogan "'Vote for OK' has been much snappier than using his awkward Dutch name.

Nowadays it is used to mean that something is **good** or **correct**. It can often be used instead of the word **Yes**. We use **okay** in informal language. We use it in different ways, as a discourse marker, Adjective or Adverb.

Okay as a discourse marker

Agreeing

We use *okay* as a response token to show that we understand, accept, or agree with what someone is saying:

A: *I shall see you at 5 in front of the library.*

B: **O.K.** See you later.

A: *Why don't you get a lift with Jamie?*

B: *Oh, **okay**.*

Changing topic or closing a conversation

We often use *okay* to show that we are moving on to a new topic or phase of conversation. This is common in situations where we are giving instructions:

Okay, let's get into groups of four now.

[piano teacher to pupil]

OK, right, let's see. Now, keep that hand ready, so it's there when you want it.

We also use *okay* to mark the end of a conversation:

Right, **okay**, take care of yourself. Bye.

Checking understanding

We often use *okay?* to check understanding. We usually put it in end position:

*I know it's difficult to talk ... just nod or shake your head. **OK?***

*Tie it the opposite way ... just like tying a shoelace really, **okay?***

Okay as an Adjective

We often use *okay* as an Adjective to say that something is not a problem, it's 'all right':

A: *Thanks for helping me out.*

B: *That's **OK**. No problem.*

A: *Sorry to keep you waiting.*

B: *It's **okay**.*

*'It's **OK**, just tell me what to do,' I said. I think I was a bit afraid, but I was trying to sound calm.*

We often use *okay* to talk about our health:

A: *How are you?*

B: *I'm **okay**, thanks.*

Talking about someone who has been very ill:

*She's going to be **OK**.*

We use *okay* to say that a situation or state is satisfactory, neither very good or very bad:

*'What do you think of my plans?' 'They're **okay**,' Jenny said unenthusiastically.*

Okay as an Adverb

Okay is used as an Adverb in informal speech, meaning 'all right', 'neither well nor badly':

*Even though I had never slept in a tent, in a sleeping bag or had any experience canoeing, I did **OK**.*

*The Internet was down all morning, but it seems to be working **okay** now.*

SO

SO + Adjective (*so difficult*), **SO + Adverb** (*so slowly*)

We often use **so** when we mean 'to such a great extent'. With this meaning, **so** is a degree Adverb that modifies Adjectives and other Adverbs:

*Using that camera is easy. Why is she making it **so** difficult?*

*Why is she **so** untidy?*

*I am sorry I am walking **so** slowly. I have hurt my ankle.*

*It does not always work out **so** well.*

We also use **so** as an intensifier to mean 'very, very':

*That motorway is **so** dangerous. Everyone drives too fast.*

*That's kind of you. Thanks **so** much for thinking of us.*

We often use **so** with *that*:

*He is **so** lazy **that** he never helps out with the housework.*

*It was **so** dark (**that**) we could hardly see.*

We do not use **so** before an Adjective + a Noun (attributive Adjective). We use **such**:

*She emailed us **such** lovely pictures of her and Enzo.*

Not: ... ~~so lovely pictures~~ ...

We use **such** not **so** to modify Noun phrases:

*She is **such** a hard-working colleague.*

Not: ... ~~so a hard-working colleague~~ ...

*It's taken them **such** a long time to send the travel brochures.*

Not: ... ~~so a long time~~ ...

SO MUCH and SO MANY

We use **so** before *much*, *many*, *little* and *few*:

*There were **so many** people on the beach it was difficult to get into the sea.*

*There are **so few** people who know what it is like in our country for other people from different cultures.*

*You've eaten **so little** and I've eaten **so much**!*

We use *so much*, not *so*, before comparatives:

*I feel **so much** better after I've been for a run in the park.*

Not: ~~I feel so better~~ ...

My house is **so much** colder than yours.

SO as a substitute form

SO substituting for an Adjective

In formal contexts we can use **so** instead of an Adjective phrase after a Verb:

*The bus service was very unreliable when I was young and it remains **so** even today.* (It remains very unreliable ...)

*She is very anxious. She's been **so** since the accident.* (She's been very anxious since the accident.)

MORE SO, LESS SO

When we are comparing, we use **more so** and **less so** as substitutes:

*The kitchen is very old-fashioned, the living room **more so**.* (The living room is more old-fashioned than the kitchen.)

*My old office was very dark; my new office **less so**.* (My new office is less dark than my old office.)

SO as substitute

With some Verbs, we often use **so** instead of repeating an Object clause, especially in short answers:

A: *Will Lydia be at the meeting today?*

B: *I think **so**.* (I think Lydia will be at the meeting today.)

*The next train is going to be half an hour late. They told me **so** when I bought my ticket.* (They told me (that) the next train is going to be half an hour late.)

SO with reporting Verbs

Spoken English:

Especially in speaking, we sometimes use **so** in front position in short responses with reporting verbs such as *believe, say, tell, hear, read*:

*She's the most popular singer. **So** everybody says, anyway.*

A: *Janet got the job.*

B: ***So** I heard.* (I heard that Janet got the job.)

A: *The Council has given planning permission for another shopping centre in the city.*

B: ***So** I read in the paper.* (I read that the Council has given planning permission for another shopping centre.)

SO AM I, SO DO I, NEITHER DO I

We use **so** with **be** and with Modal and Helper Verbs to mean 'in the same way', 'as well' or 'too'. We use it in order to avoid repeating a Verb, especially in short responses with Pronoun Subjects. When we use **so** in this way, we invert the Verb and Subject, and we do not repeat the main Verb (**so** + Verb [= V] + Subject [= S]):

*Geoff is a very good long-distance runner and **so** [V]is [S]his wife.*

A: *What are you doing tonight?*

B: *I've got loads of exam marking to do and I'm staying at home.*

A: ***So** [V]am [S]I.*

*They all joined the new gym and after three weeks **so** [V]did [S]he.* (... and after three weeks he joined the gym too.)

NEITHER DO I

We also use *not ... either, nor* or *neither* when we want to give a negative meaning:

A: *I don't think she'll be coming to the party.*

B: ***Nor/Neither** do I.* (or *I don't either.*)

SO in exclamations

Spoken English: When we make exclamative responses, we can use **so** as a substitute before the Subject and Verb *be*, or Subject and modal or auxiliary verb:

A: *We're out of salt.*

B: *Oh, **so we are!***

A: *Look Mum, I can climb all the way to the top.*

B: ***So you can!***

SO as a Conjunction

We use **so** as a subordinating Conjunction to introduce clauses of result or decision:

*I got here late. It was a long journey, **so** I'm really tired now.*

*You are right, of course, **so** I think we will accept what the bank offers.*

*It's much cheaper with that airline, isn't it, **so** I'll get all the tickets for us with them.*

SO and that-clauses

We use *so* + *that* as a Conjunction to introduce clauses of reason and explanation:

*They both went on a diet **so that** they could play more football with their friends.*

We also use *so* + Adjective or Adverb before *that*-clauses. We do not use *very* in this structure:

*It was **so hot that** we didn't leave the air-conditioned room all day.*

*They drove **so fast that** they escaped the police car that was chasing them. Not: They drove very fast that ...*

SO as a discourse marker

Spoken English:

So is a very common discourse marker in speaking. It usually occurs at the beginning of clauses and we use it when we are summarising what has just been said, or when we are changing topic (from a lecture on English literature):

***So**, we have covered the nineteenth century and we're now going to look at all the experiments in the novel in the early twentieth century.*

(discussing whether to eat a pudding or keep it till the following morning)

A: *I am not having it cold in the morning.*

B: *Oh. **So** what sort of pudding is it? **So**, what time does the film start?*

SO: other uses in speaking

So far means 'up to now':

***So far** we have kept the news within the family.*

We use the expression *is that so?* in responses to express surprise or suspicion:

A: *When I came to the flat all the lights were still on!*

B: *Oh, **is that so?***

A: *Yes!*

Spoken English: We sometimes use *so* in informal speaking to indicate the size or extent of something. We use it in a similar way to *this* and we usually use hand gestures to show the size or extent (referring to a valuable diamond in a ring):

*It's about **so** small. (or It's about **this** small.)*

We also sometimes use *so* to mean 'like this':

*Hold the racket in your left hand – **so**. That's right.*

In speaking, we also use **so** to intensify words, phrases and clauses. We stress *so* quite strongly. This usage is very common among some younger speakers. It has a meaning similar to *just* or *just like*:

*I'm **so** not interested.*

*That's **so** Jack. He always behaves like that. (That's just like Jack.)*

*That is **so** what I don't want to hear!*

SO and NOT WITH EXPECT, HOPE, THINK, etc.

We can use **so** after some Verbs instead of repeating an Object clause, especially in short answers. The verbs we do this with most are: *appear, assume, be afraid* (meaning 'regret'), *believe, expect, guess, hope, imagine, presume, reckon, seem, suppose, think*: *Chris thinks the tickets are too expensive, and Madeline **thinks so** too. (... and Madeline thinks the tickets are expensive.)*

A: *Are you working on Saturday?*

B: *I'm **afraid so**. I wish I wasn't! (I'm afraid I'm working.)*

A: *D'you think the weather's going to be fine tomorrow?*

B: *I **hope so**. I want to do some work in the garden. (I hope the weather's going to be fine.)*

We can use *not* after *be afraid, guess, hope* and *suppose* instead of using a negative Object clause:

A: *Can we speak to Mr Brindley, please?*

B: *I'm **afraid not**. He's busy. (I'm afraid you cannot speak to Mr Brindley.)*

A: *It looks as if Louis won't be coming with us after all.*

B: *I **guess not**. It's a pity.*

*She thinks she might lose her job in the New Year, but she **hopes not**.*

With *believe, expect* and *think*, we normally use auxiliary *do* + *not* + main Verb + *so*:

A: *Did Frances come here this morning?*

B: *I **don't believe so**. Ask Hannah.*

*They asked Wilma if she thought her mother would refuse the invitation. She said she **didn't think so**.*

We can find **believe not**, **expect not** and **think not** in classic literature and in very formal situations, but it is not common in everyday modern English (from the novel *Dombey and Son*, by Charles Dickens, 1848). However, as it is part of English literature and therefore as part of the culture of all English-speaking people, we consider such a speech as correct. (This applies even to literature of Shakespeare's time or the Bible):

'He is in England, I hope, aunt?' said the child.

'I believe so. Yes; I know he is, indeed.'

'Has he ever been here?'

'I believe not. No.'

Are we prepared to change our entire lives for the sake of one person? I think not.

Typical errors

- We do not use **so** + **Object clause** together:

A: *Is George coming today?*

B: *I don't think so..* Not: *I don't think so he's coming today.*

- We don't say *I think* or *I don't think* without **so** in short answers:

A: *Is next Monday a public holiday?*

B: Yes, **I think so**. Not: ~~Yes, I think.~~

SUCH

SUCH as a determiner

We can use *such* (as a determiner) before a Noun phrase to add emphasis:

*We visited **such** fascinating places on our trip through central Asia.*

*She has **such** lovely hair.*

*She lived in **such** loneliness.* (formal)

We use **such** before the indefinite article, *a/an*:

*We had **such an** awful meal at that restaurant!*

Not: ~~We had a such awful meal ...~~

SUCH meaning 'of this or that kind'

In more formal situations, we can use **such** to mean 'of this or that kind'. We can use it before *a/an* or after expressions like *the only*, *the first*, *the second*:

*You must not destroy people's houses. I could never agree to **such** a plan.* (a plan of that kind)

*A college is offering a degree in pop music composition. It is the only **such** course in the country.* (the only course of that kind)

SUCH ... THAT

We can use a *that*-clause after a Noun phrase with *such*:

*He is **such** a bad-tempered person **that** no one can work with him for long.*

*It was **such** a long and difficult exam **that** I was completely exhausted at the end.*

SUCH or SO?

Such is a determiner; **so** is an Adverb. They often have the same meaning of 'very' or 'to this degree':

*Those are **such** good chocolates.*

*Those chocolates are **so** good.*

We use **such** + **Noun phrase** and **so** + **Adjective** or **Adverb** phrase:

*She is **such** a great cook.* Not: ~~She is so great cook.~~

*That was **so** unpleasant.* (so + Adjective)

Not: ~~That was such unpleasant.~~

*Why do you drive **so** fast?* (so + Adverb)

Not: ~~Why do you drive such fast?~~

Compare:

so + Adjective	such + Noun phrase
<i>You're so kind.</i>	<i>He's such a kind person</i>
<i>It was so hot we couldn't work.</i>	<i>November was such a cold month.</i>

So but not **such** can also be used in front of *much*, *many*, *little*, *few* to add emphasis:

***So much** food was wasted every day.*

Not: ~~Such much food was wasted ...~~

*In those days there were **so few** doctors in our area.*

Not: ~~... there were such few doctors ...~~

Typical errors

- We use **such**, not **so**, before a Noun, even if there is an Adjective before the Noun:

*They are **such** snobs! They will not speak to anyone else in the village.* Not: ~~They're so snobs ...~~

*Those are **such** cool shoes. Where did you get them?*

Not: ~~Those are so cool shoes.~~

- We use **such**, not **so**, before a Noun phrase with the indefinite Article *a/an*:

*This is **such a** wonderful kitchen!*

Not: ~~This is a so wonderful kitchen!~~

- We use **so**, not **such**, before Adjectives:

*Thank you. You're **so** kind.* Not: ~~You're such kind.~~

- We use **so**, not **such**, before Adverbs:

*She always dresses **so** elegantly.*

Not: ~~She always dresses such elegantly.~~

SUCH AS

We can use *such as* to introduce an example or examples of something we mention. We normally use a comma before *such as* when we present a list of examples. Where there is just one example, we don't need a comma:

*The shop specialises in tropical fruits, **such as** pineapples, mangoes and papayas. (... for example, pineapples, mangoes and papayas.)*

*Countries **such as** Sweden have a long record of welcoming refugees from all over the world.*

Such as is similar to *like* for introducing examples, but it is more formal, and is used more in writing than *like*:

*She has worked in several countries where English is spoken as a first language, **such as** Australia, New Zealand, Canada and so on. (or, less formal, ... **like** Australia, New Zealand, Canada and so on.)*

Warning:

We don't use *as* on its own to introduce examples:

*Young kids these days seem to love 1960s rock bands, **such as** the Beatles, the Kinks or the Rolling Stones.*

Not: ... ~~to love 1960s rock bands, as the Beatles ...~~

Warning:

We don't use *such as* when we compare things:

*The group from Dublin all wore green, white or gold t-shirts, **like** the colours of their national flag.*

Not: ... ~~such as the colours of their national flag.~~

NEITHER as a determiner

Neither allows us to make a negative statement about two people or things at the same time. *Neither* goes before singular countable Nouns. We use it to say 'not either' in relation to two things. *Neither* can be Pronounced /'naɪðə(r)/ or /'ni:ðə(r)/.

Neither parent came to meet the teacher. (The mother didn't come and the father didn't come.)

Neither dress fitted her. (There were two dresses and not one of them fitted her.)

We use *neither of* before Pronouns and Plural countable Nouns which have a Determiner (*my, his, the*) before them:

Neither of us went to the concert.

Neither of the birthday cards was suitable.

Spoken English:

In formal styles, we use *neither of* with a singular Verb when it is the subject. However, in informal speaking, people often use Plural verbs:

Neither of my best friends was around.

Neither of them were interested in going to university.

In speaking, we can use *neither* on its own in replies when we are referring to two things that have already been mentioned:

A: *Mike, which would you prefer, tea or coffee?*

B: **Neither** thanks. I've just had a coffee.

NEITHER ... NOR

We can use *neither* as a Conjunction with *nor*. It connects two or more negative alternatives. This can sound formal in speaking:

Neither Brian **nor** his wife mentioned anything about moving house. (Brian didn't mention that they were moving house and his wife didn't mention that they were moving house.)

Neither Italy **nor** France got to the quarter finals last year.

The less formal alternative is to use *and ... not ... either*:

Italy didn't get to the quarter finals last year **and** France **didn't either**.

NOT with NEITHER and NOR

When a clause with *neither* or *nor* is used after a negative clause, we invert the Subject and the Verb after *neither* and *nor*:

He **had not** done any homework, **neither** had he brought any of his books to class.

We **did not** get to see the castle, **nor** did we see the cathedral.

NEITHER DO I, NOR CAN SHE

We use *neither* and *nor* + auxiliary/Modal Verb + Subject to mean 'also not':

A: I hate snakes. I can't even look at a picture of a snake.

B: **Neither** can I. Not: I can't also.

A: Jacqueline doesn't drive.

B: **Nor** does Gina. Not: Gina doesn't also.

NOT ... EITHER

We can use *not ... either* to mean 'also not', but we do not change the word order of the auxiliary or Modal Verb and Subject:

A: I haven't ever tasted caviar.

B: I haven't **either**. (or Neither have I./Nor have I.)

A: I didn't see Lesley at the concert.

B: I didn't **either**. (or Neither did I./Nor did I.)

In informal speaking, we often say *me neither*:

A: I can't smell anything.

B: **Me neither**. (or I can't either.)

NEITHER: typical errors

- We use *neither*, not *none*, when we are talking about two people or things:
Books and television are different. **Neither of** them should replace the other. Not: ~~None of them~~ ...

- We do not normally use *both (of)* + *not* to make a negative statement about two people or things:

Neither of these shirts is/are dry yet. Not: ~~Both of these shirts aren't dry yet.~~

HATE, LIKE, LOVE and PREFER

We can use *hate*, *like*, *love* and *prefer* with an *-ing* form or with a *to*-infinitive:

I **hate** to see food being thrown away.

I **love** going to the cinema.

I **prefer** listening to the news on radio than watching it on TV.

He **prefers** not to wear a tie to work.

In American English, the forms with *to*-infinitive are much more common than the *-ing* form.

There is a very small difference in meaning between the two forms. The *-ing* form emphasises the action or experience. The *to*-infinitive gives more emphasis to the results of the action or event. We often use the *-ing* form to suggest enjoyment (or lack of it), and the *to*-infinitive form to express habits or preferences.

Compare

I like making jam. He likes telling jokes. They don't like sitting for too long.	emphasis on the experience or action
We have a lot of fruit in the garden. I like to make jam every year. I prefer to sort out a problem as soon as I can. If you prefer not to go camping there are youth hostels nearby.	a habit or preference

The *-ing* form is more common than the *to*-infinitive form after *hate* and *love*:

I **hate** decorating. I'd rather pay a professional to do it.

Would + HATE, LIKE, LOVE, PREFER

When we use *would* or *'d* with *hate*, *like*, *love*, *prefer*, we use the *to*-infinitive, not the *-ing* form:

We **would love** to hear you sing.

Not: We would love hearing you sing.

They'd **hate** to cause a problem.

Not: They'd hate causing a problem.

I'd **prefer** not to give you my name.

Not: I'd prefer not giving you my name.

WOULD LIKE

We use *would like* or *'d like* to say politely what we want, especially when making offers and requests:

Would you like a biscuit with your coffee?

Can you order for Ellie? She **'d like** the Margarita pizza, please.

Verbs that follow *would like* are in the *to*-infinitive form:

Would you like to listen to that again?

I'd like to get a return ticket for tomorrow.

We use *Do you like ...?* to ask about preferences in general. We don't use *Do you like ...?* to make offers or requests.

Compare

<i>Do you like rice?</i>	<i>Would you like some rice?</i>	<i>Do you like dancing?</i>	<i>Would you like to dance?</i>
asks about likes and dislikes in general	offers some rice	asks about likes and dislikes in general	invites you to dance

WOULD LIKE TO HAVE + -ed form

We use *would like to have + -ed* form when talking about things in the past that we have missed:

I'd like to have watched the football but I had to go out. (I wanted to watch the football, but I didn't.)

I'd like to

We can use *I'd like to* as a short answer to an offer or invitation:

A: You must have dinner with us.

B: Yes, **I'd like to**.

A: Good. Is Sunday night any good?

Well

Well is a discourse marker, Adverb or Adjective.

WELL as a discourse marker

Spoken English:

In speaking, we often use *well* at the start of what we say. Its main function is to show that we are thinking about the question that we have been asked:

A: How was your meeting?

B: **Well**, it's difficult to say. I think they liked our presentation but I am not sure.

A: How long would it take to drive from Dundee to here?

B: **Well**, let me see. I'd say it would take at least three hours, if not more.

Spoken English:

We can use *well* to show a slight change in topic, or when what we are about to say is not quite what is expected:

A: Have you found a house yet?

B: **Well**, we've stopped looking actually. Nadia's company has offered her another contract and we've decided to stay in Edinburgh for another year.

A: Did you like that book?

B: **Well**, it was interesting, but war stories are not really my favourite.

We can use *well* when we want to change what we have said slightly, or say something in another way:

I'm not going on a hiking holiday. I hate walking. **Well**, I hate being out in the cold weather.

Fiona is feeling better. **Well**, she's much better than she was. She'll be back to work on Monday.

We can use *well* when we admit or acknowledge that something is correct or true:

A: It'll take four hours to get to Glasgow.

B: It'll take more than that. We'll have to stop for a break somewhere.

A: **Well**, that's true.

Warning:

We can use *well* with a rising intonation as a type of question when we want someone to tell us something. In this case, it means *tell me* or *tell us*. Be careful when you use this, as it can sound very direct:

A: There's something I have to tell you.

B: What is it?

A: [silence]

B: **Well?**

Well? What did you say to her?

WELL as an Adverb

We use *well* as an Adverb when something is done to a good standard or in a good way:

*He drives very **well**.*

*I work very **well** late at night.*

We often use *well* before -ed forms, often with a hyphen:

*This table isn't very **well-made**.*

*I like my steak **well-cooked**. (I like my steak cooked for a long time.)*

A: *I've passed my driving test!*

B: ***Well done**.*

WELL and GOOD

Well and *good* have a similar meaning, but *good* is not used as an Adverb. It is used as an Adjective.

Compare

<i>She is a very good singer.</i>	<i>good used as an Adjective modifying singer</i>
--	---

WELL as an Adjective

We use *well* as an Adjective, normally after a linking Verb such as *be*, *look* or *get*, to mean 'in good health':

A: *How are you?*

B: *I'm very **well**, thanks. And you?*

*Are you feeling OK? You don't look very **well**.*

In American English, it is common to use *good* instead of *well* in this context. This is less common in British English:

A: *And how's your mother?*

B: *She's **good**. Thanks for asking.*

MIND

MIND as a Verb

We use the Verb *mind* to mean 'take care or be careful of or about something', or 'pay attention to something'. In this meaning, we usually use it in the imperative: ***Mind your step!***

Mind the gap! [A warning sign on platforms of railway stations]

Mind your head. This is a very small door!

*Kathy, **mind** that you don't trip over my bag. It's right by the door.*

We can also use *mind* to mean 'take care of someone or something':

*My mother has offered to **mind** the children while we are away.*

*Could you **mind** my bag for a moment?*

Warning:

We do not use *mind* to mean *remember*.

*We must **remember** that it is our responsibility to protect and care for the environment.*

Not: ~~*We must **mind** that ...*~~

I DON'T MIND, HE DOESN'T MIND

We can use *don't/doesn't mind* to mean 'not feel annoyed or worried by something'.

I don't mind living near the train line. *You get used to it.*

She doesn't mind waiting up late.

Warning:

We say *I don't mind*, or *it doesn't matter*. We don't say *it doesn't mind*:

A: *Sorry, there are no more chairs!*

B: ***I don't mind***. *I can sit on the floor. (or **It doesn't matter**. I can sit on the floor.)* Not: ~~*It doesn't mind ...*~~

Warning:

When we refer to the future, we use present (not future) Verb forms after *mind*:

I don't mind what day they come and stay as long as it's not Tuesday 12th because I'm away.

Not: ~~*... what day they will come and stay ...*~~

WOULD YOU MIND? and DO YOU MIND?

We use the phrases *would you mind* + -ing form, and *do you mind* + -ing form to ask people politely to do things. *Would you mind* is more polite and more common:

Would you mind opening the window, please?

Do you mind turning down the volume a little, please?

Do you mind me turning on the light? (I want to turn on the light)

When we ask for permission politely, we can use *would you mind* if I + past or *do you mind* if I + present:

Would you mind if I turned on this light?

Do you mind if I sit here?

When someone asks for permission, we usually reply *no ...*, meaning 'I don't mind' or 'I'm happy with that'. If we want to say that we are not happy, we usually begin with *I'm afraid ...*:

A: ***Would you mind*** if we sat here?

B: **No**, not at all. (you can sit here – I don't mind)

A: ***Do you mind*** if I use your phone?

B: ***I'm afraid*** the battery is dead. Not: ~~No. The battery is dead.~~

NEVER MIND

We use the phrase ***never mind*** to tell someone not to worry about something because it is not important:

A: Amy, I'm afraid I've broken a cup in your kitchen.

B: ***Never mind***, Liz. It's only a cup!

A: I really want to see that new Brad Pitt movie.

B: It finished last week at the cinema.

A: Oh, ***never mind***. I'll get it on DVD eventually.

MIND YOU

Spoken English:

We use the phrase ***mind you*** in speaking to mean 'but we should also remember or take into account':

*We had such terrible weather on our holiday. ***Mind you***, it was winter in Tasmania when we went there.*

We also use *mind you* when we are joking:

[A is reading a newspaper headline]

A: *Lotto winner John builds golf-course in back yard.*

B: *Oh yeah. That is one way of spending your money.*

A: *Yeah.*

B: *Yeah. Must have a big back yard, ***mind you***, to have ten holes of golf.*

MIND as a Noun

The Noun *mind* refers to the part of a person that enables them to think, feel emotions and be aware of things:

*I was imagining fields of golden daffodils in my ***mind***.*

*My ***mind*** was filled with ideas.*

There are many commonly used phrases with *mind*:

*Liam was going to come with us, but he's ***changed his mind***.* (make a new or different decision about something)

*We've ***made up our minds***. We're moving to New Zealand.* (make a decision)

*What's ***on your mind***?* (what's bothering you?)

*As a detective, I have to ***keep an open mind***.* (be willing to consider all of the options and possibilities)

You will find other meanings of *mind* in a good learner's dictionary.

MIND: typical errors

- We don't use *to*-infinitive after *would you mind* or *do you mind*:

Would you mind getting me a newspaper?

Not: ~~Would you mind to get me a newspaper?~~

- We don't use *mind* to mean 'remember':

*Many people refuse to give any importance to computers but they should ***remember*** they have better lives because of them.*

Not: ~~... they should mind they have better lives because of them.~~

MATTER

We can use *matter* as a Verb or a Noun. It is a very common word with a number of different uses and grammatical patterns.

MATTER as a Verb

MATTER in the negative

The most common use of the Verb **matter** is in the expression **it doesn't matter** (and the less common forms *it did not matter*, *it would not matter* and *it will not matter*). *It does not matter* means 'it is not important', 'I do not mind' or 'it is not a problem':

A: *I forgot to buy milk when I was in town.*

B: **It doesn't matter.** *We have got enough till tomorrow.*

It does not matter *if you cannot be here by nine o'clock. We can start without you and you can join us later.*

It wouldn't matter *if we did not invite Paul and John to the wedding. They would not expect to be invited.*

MATTER in questions

We can ask questions with *matter*, often followed by an *if*-clause. Questions with *matter* usually mean 'Is it a problem?':

Does it matter *if I leave my computer on all night?*

Would it matter *which flight we got?*

A: *I forgot to copy William in on the email to Margaret.*

B: **Does it matter?**

A: *I suppose not.*

MATTER in affirmative statements

Less commonly, we can use *matter* in affirmative statements to say that something is important for a particular person, often with *to*:

A: *Sam says the school buildings are in a bad state.*

B: *Well, the local authority doesn't care. Nobody cares.*

A: *Well, it matters to Sam. He has to work there.*

It matters to me *that my children should be polite to adults.*

MATTER As A Noun

What is the matter (with ...)?

We can use **what's the matter** (*with ...*)? to ask someone about a problem or to ask for an explanation of a situation that looks problematic:

[adult to little child]

What's the matter, darling? *Why are you crying?*

What's the matter with Frank *these days? He's acting so strangely.*

Warning:

We do not say **THE MATTER IS ...**, we say **THE PROBLEM IS ...**

*He would like to live in the USA. **The problem is** he cannot get a visa.*

Not: ~~The matter is ...~~

When we reply to the question *What is the matter?*, we do not use **matter**, we use **problem**:

A: *What is the matter with Charles?*

B: **The problem is** *he has just broken up with his girlfriend. They have been together for a long time.*

MATTER as a Countable Noun

We can use *matter* as a Countable Noun to mean 'question, problem or issue':

*This is a **matter** for the police. We cannot deal with it ourselves.*

*It's only a **matter** of time before everyone will get bored with reality TV shows.*

*Are there any other **matters** to discuss today, or shall we finish?*

MATTER as an Uncountable Noun

Matter as an uncountable Noun means 'the physical substance that makes up the universe':

*How much **matter** is there in the entire universe? Scientists are not absolutely sure.*

AS A MATTER OF FACT

We can use the expression *as a matter of fact* to emphasise that something is different from what has been said before, or from what people think or expect:

A: *I don't think you like Hilary, do you?*

B: No, that's just not true. **As a matter of fact**, I'm very fond of her. It's just that she irritates me sometimes.

IN A MATTER OF + time expression

We can use the expression *in a matter of* with a time expression to refer to something that happens very quickly, or which can be done very quickly:

*It used to take an hour to get to the airport, but now with the new metro line you can get there **in a matter of** minutes.*

NO MATTER

We can use **no matter** to link two clauses as a Conjunction. It is a short form of *it does not matter*. We can use *no matter* with *what*, *when*, *where*, *which*, *who* and *how* to refer to a situation that cannot be changed, even though we try:

No matter what I wear, I always feel dull and old-fashioned.

No matter where she looked, she could not find the missing paper.

He never answers emails, **no matter how** many you send him.

If there is just one clause, we use *it doesn't matter* before *what*, *when*, *where*, *which*, *who* and *how*:

A: *There are three phone numbers here for the tax office. Which one do I call?*

B: **It doesn't matter** which one you use. Not: ~~No matter which one you use.~~

We don't use *no matter* as a conjunction with *if*. We say *it doesn't matter if*.

It doesn't matter if you wear a smart suit, they still won't let you in without a tie.

MATTER: typical errors

- The Noun *matter*, meaning 'question, problem or issue', is countable:

*I have some important **matters** to discuss.*

Not: ... some important matter ...

- The conjunction form is *no matter*. We don't say *not matter*.

*I'll get a job, **no matter how long** it takes.*

Not: ... ~~not matter how long~~ ...

REALLY

We use the Adverb *really* when we want to emphasise something:

*That pasta was **really** delicious. Thank you.*

*I **really** like those photographs. Can we see them on the computer?*

*Emigrating to Canada was a **really** big decision for the whole family.*

We also use *really* to question whether what someone says is true:

*They don't look pleased to me. Are they **really** pleased?*

*Is that **really** her sister? They don't look at all alike.*

We can use *really* to make a negative utterance less direct:

*I'm not **really** angry, but I wanted them to think about their behaviour.*

A: *What do you think she should say to him?*

B: *I don't know, **really**.*

We can use *really* as a short response when we show interest or surprise:

A: *They're going on a cycling holiday to France.*

B: **Really?**

A: *Yes, and they're going to the Alps!*

ACTUAL and ACTUALLY

ACTUAL

Actual is an Adjective meaning 'true', 'real' and 'the thing in itself'. It does not refer to time. *Actual* always comes immediately before the Noun it is describing:

*We didn't go to the **actual** match but we watched it on TV.*

*People think she is over thirty but her **actual** age is eighteen.*

Spoken English:

Actual is often used in speaking in the expression 'in actual fact'. It has a similar meaning to 'in fact', but it gives more emphasis to what the speaker is saying:

In actual fact, her health a year ago was much worse.

ACTUALLY as a discourse marker

Spoken English:

Actually is often used in speaking as a discourse marker. We use it to indicate a new topic of conversation or a change or contrast in what is being talked about. We also use *actually* to give more detail about a topic. We do not use it to refer to time:

A: *I suppose you're going away this weekend?*

B: **Actually**, I am going to stay at home. I've got a lot of work to do on the computer.

[a customer (A) in a large bookshop is asking about books about travel.]

A: *Could you tell me where your books on Austria are kept?*

B: *What kind of books?*

A: Well, **actually** I'm looking for a book on skiing in Austria.

B: *Er, yes, they're in that corner over there.*

ACTUALLY as contrast

Spoken English:

We can use *actually* to emphasise a contrast with what is expected to be true or real:

He **actually** admitted that he enjoyed it. (He was not expected to enjoy it)

A: *Where are they now?*

B: *They're very near to your apartment **actually**.* (They were not expected to be so near)

We can also use *actually* to correct someone politely:

*I think ten people, not eight, came to the meeting, **actually**.*

ACTUAL and ACTUALLY: typical errors

- In some languages *actual* has the meaning of 'current' and 'at the present time'. This is not correct in English:

The **current** population of the Russian Federation is 230 million.

Not: ~~The actual population of the Russian Federation ...~~

At the present time she is working in London.

Not: ~~Actually she is working in London.~~

IN FACT

In fact is a discourse marker.

We use *in fact* to add more detailed information to what has just been said:

A: *Did she pass her driving test?*

B: Yes, she did; **in fact**, she's now taking an advanced driving test.

In fact is commonly used in front position in a clause, although in informal situations, it may occur in end position:

*The holiday was really disappointing – a complete disaster, **in fact**. It just rained all the time.*

Other discourse markers which have similar meanings include: *in actual fact*, *as a matter of fact*, *in point of fact*, *actually*, *in truth*.

AS

As is a Preposition or a Conjunction.

AS as a Preposition

We use *as* with a Noun to refer to the role or purpose of a person or thing:

*I worked **as** a waiter when I was a student. Most of us did.*

Not: ~~I worked like a waiter ...~~

[The *Daily Telegraph* is a British newspaper]

*The Daily Telegraph appointed Trevor Grove **as** its Sunday editor.*

*Internet shopping is seen **as** a cheaper alternative to shopping on the high street.*

*A sarong is essential holiday gear. It can be used **as** a beach towel, wrap, dress or scarf and will take up no space in your bag.*

Warning:

We don't use *as* + Noun to mean 'similar to'. We use *like* + Noun:

*It's almost **like** a real beach, but it's actually artificial.*

Not: ~~It's almost as a real beach ...~~

*I would like to have a white cat **like** the one in my dream.*

Not: ~~... as the one in my dream~~

AS as a Conjunction

The Conjunction *as* has several different meanings. We use *as* when one event happens while another is in progress ('during the time that'). In this case the Verb after is often in the continuous form:

*They arrived **as** we were leaving.* (time Conjunction meaning 'while' or 'when')

We use *as* to connect a result with a cause:

*I went to bed at 9 pm **as** I had a plane to catch at 6 am.* (reason and result meaning 'because')

We also use *as* to mean 'in the way that':

***As** the forecast predicted, the weather was dreadful for the whole of the weekend.*

*She arrived early, **as** I expected.*

THE SAME AS

We use *as* with *the same* to talk about identical things:

Your jacket is **the same** colour **as** mine.

AS: simultaneous changes

We use *as* to introduce two events happening at the same time. After *as* with this meaning, we usually use a simple (rather than continuous) form of the verb:

As the show increases in popularity, more and more tickets are sold daily.

Compare:

When you get older, moving house gets harder.	One thing happens first and as a result the second thing is true.
As you get older, moving house gets harder. Not: While you get older ...	The two things happen at the same time.

Warning:

We don't use *as* alone to introduce examples. We say *such as*:

*They gave them gifts **such as** flowers and fruit and sang a special welcome song.*

Not: ... ~~gifts as flowers~~ ...

SAME, SIMILAR, IDENTICAL

Same means that two or more things are exactly like one another. We can use *same* as an Adjective before a Noun or as a Pronoun. When we use *same* to compare people or things, we must use it with *the*:

*I noticed that Richard and I were both wearing **the same** jacket.* Not: ... ~~were both wearing same jacket~~.

*These two colours are not **the same**. This one is slightly lighter than that one.* Not: ... ~~are not same~~.

THE SAME AS

Warning:

The same is followed by *as*. It is not followed by *that* or *than*:

*Does 'start' mean **the same as** 'begin' in English?*

Not: ... ~~the same that~~ ... or ... ~~the same than~~ ...

*My new car is **the same** model **as** my old one.*

Not: ... ~~the same model that~~ ... or ... ~~the same model than~~ ...

THE SAME + Noun + clause

When we use *the same* with a Noun, we can follow it by a clause with *that*, and less commonly with *who* or *which*. We can often leave out *that*, *who* or *which*:

*She's **the same** person **(that)** I spoke to when I phoned their office.*

*How was the course? Was it **the same** teacher **(who)** you had last time?*

We can emphasise *same* with *very*:

*This is **the very same** hotel we stayed at when we were here twenty years ago!*

DO THE SAME

We can use *do the same* instead of repeating a clause:

*She bought her ticket for the folk festival online, and we **did the same**.* (We also bought our tickets online.)

SIMILAR and IDENTICAL

We use *similar* if two or more things are not entirely the same, or *identical* if two or more things are exactly the same. We use the patterns *similar to* and *identical to*, *a similar + Noun* or *a similar + one* and *an identical + Noun* or *an identical + one*. We don't say *a same*:

*This colour is **similar to** that one.*

*Frank had a problem connecting his printer. We had **a similar** problem, so it must be the software.*

Not: ... ~~a same problem~~ ...

*She first showed us a beautiful 16th-century vase. Then she showed us **an identical one**, but the second one was a copy.*

Not: ... ~~a same one~~ ...

*Questions 1 and 2 were **identical**.*

UNTIL

Until is a Preposition and a conjunction. *Until* is often shortened to *till* or *'til*. *Till* and *'til* are more informal and we don't usually use them in formal writing.

UNTIL as a Preposition

Until as a Preposition means 'up to (the time that)':

*We played chess **until** midnight.* (up to midnight)

*The film didn't end **till** eleven o'clock.*

We use *from* with *until* or *till* to talk about when something begins and when it ends:

*I worked out at the gym **from** 6 pm **till** 7.30 pm.*

*The road outside our house will be closed **from** 6 am **until** 6 pm tomorrow.*

We use *by*, not *until*, to talk about something that will happen before a particular time or deadline:

*The movie will be finished **by** 9 pm.*

Not: ~~The movie will be finished until/till 9 pm.~~

We don't use *until* or *till* to talk about quantity or numbers. We use *up to*:

*The taxi can take **up to** five people.*

Not: ~~The taxi can take until five people.~~

We don't use *until* or *till* to talk about distance. We use *as far as*:

*Larry drove me **as far as** the shop and I walked the rest of the way home.* Not: ~~Larry drove me until the shop ...~~

UNTIL as a Conjunction

We use *until* as a subordinating Conjunction to connect an action or an event to a point in time:

*Let's wait here **till** the rain stops.* (*till* + subordinate clause)

Warning:

We don't normally put the *until*-clause before the main clause:

*No one left the room **until** the talk ended.*

Not: ~~Until the talk ended no one left ...~~

We use present Verb forms to refer to the future after *until*:

*I can't wait **until** the summer holidays **begin**.*

Not: ... ~~until the summer holidays will begin.~~

We also use the present perfect after *until* to refer to actions or events that will continue up to a point in the future:

*We'll sit here **till** Donna **has finished**.*

Not: ... ~~until Donna will have finished.~~

We use the past simple and past perfect to talk about events in the past:

*He was the headteacher **until** he **retired** in 1968.*

*We couldn't put down the new floor **till** the plumber **had finished**.*

Warning:

We cannot use *until* or *till* to mean 'in advance of'. In this case we use *before*:

*Please return your registration form **before** you leave the room.*

Not: ~~Please return your registration form until you leave the room.~~

UNTIL: typical errors

- We don't use *until* to talk about things that will happen before a particular time or deadline; we use *by*:

*All applications must be received **by** Friday, 26 June 2009.*

Not: ... ~~until Friday, 26 June 2009.~~

- We do not use *until* or *till* to talk about quantity; we use *up to*:

*The theatre can hold **up to** two hundred people.*

Not: ~~The theatre can hold until two hundred people.~~

- We do not use *until* or *till* to talk about distance; we use *as far as*:

*We had to drive **as far as** Liverpool for the last hockey match that I played.*

Not: ~~We had to drive until Liverpool ...~~

- Take care to spell *until* with only one *l* at the end: not 'untill'.

NEXT

Next is an Adjective, an Adverb or a Pronoun.

Next means the first thing or person immediately after the present thing or person:

*The **next** person she met was an old lady who had lived in the village all her life.* (adjective)

*There was a loud bang, and I can't remember what happened **next**.* (Adverb)

*Each week is just like the **next**: work, work, work.* (Pronoun)

Warning:

Next does not mean nearest:

*Can you tell me where the **nearest** supermarket is please?*

Not: *Can you tell me where the **next** supermarket is please?*

NEXT as an Adjective

NEXT or THE NEXT?

When we talk about days of the week, weeks, months, years, seasons or public holidays in the future in relation to now, we use *next* without *the* and without a preposition:

*I have an appointment with the dentist **next** Wednesday morning.*

Not: *... the **next** Wednesday morning.*

*Are you working **next** week?*

Not: *Are you working on **next** week?*

***Next** year will be our fortieth wedding anniversary.*

*We're going to plant some new flowers **next** spring.*

To refer to the future, we can use *the next few hours*, *the next two days*, *the next six months*, etc.:

*I'll finish the work in **the next few days**. You can pay me then.*

*We'll be home for **the next three weeks**, then we're going away to France for two weeks.*

When we talk about times in the past or future not related to now, we normally use *the*. However, in informal situations, we can omit *the* when we talk about the past:

***The next day** we travelled to the ancient city of Qom.*

*We're going to spend the first night in Oslo, then **the next day** we'll fly to Narvik.*

*Two policemen grabbed me. **Next minute**, I was arrested and thrown into a van.*

THE NEXT TIME

We can use *the next time* to refer to the past or to the future. In informal situations, we can omit *the*:

*We've been to Australia a few times. The first time we went it was work, then **the next time** we went it was a mix of work and holiday.*

***The next time** you're in Ireland, you must come and visit us.*

*I saw him about five years ago and he was unemployed. **Next time** I saw him he was driving a bus.* (informal)

NEXT as an Adverb

[a group of children are waiting to ride a pony]

Adult:

*Who wants to go **next**?*

Child:

Me! Me!

*He said he was upset about the drama club, but I can't remember what he said **next**.*

NEXT as a linking adjunct

We can use *next* as a linking adjunct to refer to something which follows immediately after something before. We often use this when giving instructions:

*To convert your old cassette tapes to CDs, first you will need a cable to connect your cassette player to your computer. **Next**, you will need some sort of software to convert your music to a digital format such as MP3.*

NEXT as a Pronoun

We can use *next* as a Pronoun with or without *the*:

*Ollie's coming to stay the week after **next**.* (the week after next week)

*I don't know how I'm going to manage from one day to **the next**.*

NEXT TO

We can use *next to* for people or things that are very near or beside each other:

*Can I sit **next to** you at the restaurant? There's something I want to tell you.*

We can also use *next to* when we are comparing things:

Next to English, my best language is Spanish. (English is my best language, then Spanish.)

NEXT: typical error

- When we say *next week*, *next summer*, *next August*, etc., we don't use a preposition:

*I'm going away **next** Wednesday.*

Not: *I'm going away on next Wednesday.*

NEAREST or NEXT?

Nearest is the superlative form of *near*. It means 'the closest in distance or time':

*We need to buy some food. Where's the **nearest** supermarket?* (There may be several supermarkets: which one is the shortest distance from here?)

Not: *Where's the next supermarket?*

*Feeling very sick, she took a taxi to the **nearest** hospital.*

Next means 'the first person or thing after the present one or after the one just mentioned':

*We had the addresses of three restaurants. The first one we went to was closed. The **next** one was open but full. Luckily, the last one had a table free.*

A: *When is your yoga lesson?*

B: ***Next** Wednesday at five.*

TOO

Too is an Adverb.

Too meaning 'more than enough'

We use *too* meaning 'more than enough' in different positions.

TOO before Adjectives and Adverbs

We use *too* immediately before Adjectives and Adverbs:

*This coffee is **too** sweet.*

Not: *This coffee is too much sweet.*

*I can't sleep. It's **too** hot.*

*It happened **too** quickly, so I just didn't see it.*

Not: *It happened too much quickly.*

*The car was travelling **too** fast and went out of control.*

TOO before Adjective / Adverb + to-Infinitive

*The water was **too** cold to swim in.*

*Two hours is **too** long to wait.*

TOO MUCH, TOO MANY, TOO FEW and TOO LITTLE

When we want to talk about quantities which are more or less than enough, we use *too much*, *too many*, *too few* and *too little* before a Noun:

*There's **too much** salt in this soup.* (*too much* + uncountable Noun)

*There were **too many** dogs on the beach.* (*too many* + countable Noun)

*I don't like this book because there are **too few** pictures in it.* (*too few* + countable Noun; more formal than *I don't like this book because there aren't enough pictures in it.*)

*The trip was cancelled because there was **too little** interest in it.* (*too little* + uncountable Noun)

MUCH TOO and FAR TOO

We can use *much* and *far* with *too* for emphasis. *Far too* is stronger than *much too*:

TOO and VERY

We use *very* to add emphasis to an Adjective or an Adverb, but it does not mean the same as *too*.

Compare

<i>She is very careful.</i>	<i>Very</i> makes <i>careful</i> stronger.
<i>She is too careful.</i>	<i>Too</i> <i>careful</i> means 'more careful than is necessary'.

VERY MUCH and TOO MUCH

We often use *very much* to emphasise verbs such as *like*, *dislike*, *hope*, *doubt*. We do not use *too much* in this way with these verbs:

*I like it **very much** because I got it from my husband.*

Not: *I like it too much ...*

*I doubt **very much** that Ronan will be able to come to the party.*

Not: *I doubt too much that ...*

TOO BAD

Spoken English:

In speaking, we can use *too bad* or *that's too bad* as a response token to express that we are sorry to hear about something. This is particularly common in American English:

A: *The weather forecast says it's going to rain again on Wednesday.*

B: **Too bad.** *We were planning to go for a picnic.*

A: *How's your mother?*

B: *She's okay but she's feeling lonely because she lives on her own now.*

A: **That's too bad.** *Does she have many friends living nearby?*

TOO meaning 'also'

We can use *too* to mean 'also'. It is more common than *also* in informal situations. We normally use it at the end of the clause:

[in a restaurant, A is the waiter]

A: *Have you decided?*

B: *I think I'll have the soup.*

C: *I'll have that **too**.*

*Catherine decided to join us for dinner, and her husband came along **too**.* (or, more formal, ... *and her husband also came along.*)

In short answers in informal situations, we normally say *me too*, not *I too*:

A: *I love that colour.*

B: **Me too.**

In more formal situations, we can use *too* immediately after the subject:

*You **too** could have a week in the sun.*

Visit www.holidaysforyou.com.

Typical error

- We don't use *too* to emphasise Adjectives and Adverbs. We use *very*:

*She was **very** beautiful.* (very emphasises *beautiful*)

Not: *She was ~~too~~ beautiful.*

ALL

All as a Determiner

All means 'every one', 'the complete number or amount' or 'the whole'. We use it most often as a determiner. We can use a Countable Noun or an Uncountable Noun after it:

All *my friends are away at university.*

All *tickets cost 25 pounds.*

All *information about the new product is confidential.*

As a Determiner, **all** comes before Articles, Possessives, Demonstratives and numbers.

	Art.	Poss.	Demons.	Number	
<i>All</i>	<i>the</i>				<i>trees had died.</i>
<i>All</i>		<i>my</i>			<i>family were at the party.</i>
<i>All</i>			<i>this</i>		<i>food must be eaten today.</i>
<i>All</i>				25	<i>students took the test.</i>

ALL without Article

When *all* refers to a whole class of people or things, we don't use **the**:

All *children love stories.* (i.e. every child in the world)

Not: *~~All the children love stories.~~*

We don't use **the** with time expressions such as *all day*, *all night*, *all week*, *all year*, *all summer*:

*I spent **all day** looking for my car keys.*

*The party went on **all night** and some of the neighbours complained.*

ALL OF

We use *all of* before Personal Pronouns (*us*, *them*), Demonstrative Pronouns (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*) and relative Pronouns (*whom*, *which*). The Personal Pronoun is in the Object form:

*I need to speak to **all of you** for a few minutes.*

*He brought gifts for **all of us**.*

*We had to contact the insurance firm and the airline, **all of which** took a lot of time.* (*all of which* = 'contacting the insurance firm and the airline')

With Demonstratives (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*) we can say *all of* or *all* without of:

[talking about a pile of kitchen waste]

All (of) this has to go out into the rubbish bin.

We often use *of* after *all* in definite Noun phrases (i.e. before *the*, possessives and Demonstratives), but it is not obligatory:

All (of) the workers were given a pay-rise at the end of the year.

I gave **all (of) my old books** to my sister when she went to university.

What shall we do with **all (of) this cardboard?** Throw it out?

ALL without OF

We use **all**, not **all of**, before indefinite Plural Nouns referring to a whole class of people or things:

All cats love milk.

Not: ~~All of cats love milk.~~

This book was written for **all children**, everywhere.

We use *all*, not *all of*, before uncountable Nouns:

All junk food is bad for you.

Not: ~~All of junk food is bad for you.~~

I love **all music**, not just classical.

Warning:

We don't normally say *all people*; we say *everybody* or *everyone*:

Everyone wants to achieve their personal goals in life.

Not: ~~All people want to achieve ...~~

ALL with Personal Pronouns

When **all** refers to a Personal Pronoun which is the Object in a clause, we can use Pronoun + *all* or *all of* + Pronoun. The Pronoun is in the Object form:

I used to have three pens but I have lost **them all**. (or ... but I have lost **all of them**).

Not: ... but I lost ~~all them~~.

However, in short responses, **all of** must be used:

Question: How many of these boxes are you going to need?

Answer: **All of them**. Not: ~~Them all~~.

We use *all of* with the Object form of the Pronoun, even when the Pronoun is the Subject in the clause:

All of us are hoping for good news.

A long line of people waited to speak to the officer. **All of them** had a story to tell.

ALL as a Pronoun

We can use *all* alone as a Pronoun in formal situations:

All were happy with the outcome. (less formal: *Everyone was happy with the outcome.*)

All will be revealed to the public in 25 years' time, when the cabinet papers are released.

(less formal: *Everything will be revealed to the public ...*)

Usually, *all* as a Pronoun is premodified or postmodified:

More than 100 people came to the refugee centre. **Almost all** had lost family members or property or both.

All that we had been told turned out to be untrue.

ALL as an Adverb

When *all* refers to the Subject of a clause, it usually comes in the normal mid position for Adverbs (between the Subject and the main verb, or after the Modal Verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb):

The kids **all** go to school on the same bus.

These items could **all** have been bought cheaper on the Internet.

The students are **all** here now. We can start.

ALL meaning 'completely' or 'extremely'

We can also use **all** as an Adverb meaning 'completely' or 'extremely', especially in informal styles:

He lived **all** alone in an old cottage in the woods.

He came back **all** covered in mud.

I lost a good friend, and **all** because of my stupidity.

Maggie got **all** upset when she found out the house had been sold. (informal)

ALL: not all

We can make *all* negative by using **not** in front of it:

Not all the buses go to the main bus station, so be careful which one you get.

We were **not all** happy with the result.

ALL or WHOLE?

All and *whole* are determiners.

We use them before Nouns and with other determiners to refer to a total number or complete set of things in a group.

Compare:

All the cast had food poisoning. <i>They were forced to cancel the show.</i>	all + Determiner + Noun
The whole cast had food poisoning. <i>They were forced to cancel the show.</i>	Determiner + whole + Noun

All my family lives abroad. or **My whole** family lives abroad.

We often use **all** and the **whole** with **of the**:

She complains all of the time. or *She complains the whole of the time.*

We use *a/an* with **whole** but not with **all**:

I spent a whole day looking for that book and eventually found it in a little old bookshop on the edge of town. Not: ... ~~all a day~~ ...

ALL or WHOLE for single entities

We use *the whole* or *the whole of* to refer to complete single things and events that are countable and defined:

The whole performance was disappointing from start to finish. (or **The whole of the performance** was disappointing ...)

When we can split up a thing into parts, we can use either *whole* or *all* with the same meaning:

You do not have to pay the whole (of the) bill at once.

You do not have to pay all (of) the bill at once.

She ate the whole orange.

She ate all of the orange.

We often use *the whole of* with periods of time to emphasise duration:

We spent the whole (of the) summer at the beach.

ALL THE with uncountable Nouns

We use *all the* and not *the whole* with Uncountable Nouns:

She was given all the advice she needed.

Not: *She was given the whole advice ...*

All the equipment is supplied.

ALL and WHOLE with Plural Nouns

We usually use *all the* and *all of the* with Plural Nouns:

It's funny when all the actors come in dressed up in their costumes.

She opens all the cupboard doors and doesn't close them after her.

You have to try all of the activities.

When we use *whole* with Plural Nouns, it means 'complete' or 'entire'.

Compare:

Whole families normally shared one room in the nineteenth century.	entire families
All families normally shared one bedroom in the nineteenth century.	each and every family

ALL and WHOLE: Typical errors

- We don't use **all** before **a** and **an**:

She ate a whole bar of chocolate in one go.

Not: *She ate all a bar ...*

- We cannot omit **the** before **whole** with a singular Noun:

We travelled throughout the whole country.

Not: ... ~~throughout whole country.~~

ALL: after all

We use **after all** in two main ways. We use it to mean 'in spite of what happened before'.

With this meaning it usually occurs in end position:

[spoken by someone who was previously not hungry]

I think I might have something to eat now after all.

She thought she would fail her driving test but she passed after all.

After all can also mean 'it should be remembered that':

Why do you not invite Kathie? **After all**, you do work with her every day.

Warning:

After all does not mean 'finally' or 'at last':

We spoke about it and **finally** decided to sign the contract.

Not: ... ~~and after all~~ decided to sign the contract.

AT ALL

At all means 'in any way'. We use it with questions and negatives to add emphasis, but not with affirmative statements:

Do you want to swim in the sea **at all**?

She was not **at all** frightened.

We can use **at all** before or after an Adjective:

Were you **at all** upset by Kevin's behaviour?

They were not interested **at all**.

AT ALL and politeness

We often use **at all** at the end of a question to make the question sound more polite:

[ID is an abbreviation of 'identification']

Do you have any ID **at all**?

[a waiter in a restaurant]

Would you like any desserts **at all**?

We can use *not at all* as a polite response to questions asking *Would you mind ...?* or

Do you mind ...? and as a polite follow-up response to *thank you*:

Andy: *Would you mind taking this book to the library?*

Brent: *No, **not at all**.*

Andy: *Do you mind if I sit here?*

Brent: **Not at all**.

Andy: *That is very kind of you, thank you.*

Brent: **Not at all**.

ALL RIGHT and ALRIGHT

All right is an Adjective or Adverb.

ALL RIGHT as an Adjective

We use **all right** as an Adjective after Verbs such as *be*, *feel*, *seem* or *look*, but not before a Noun (predicative Adjective). It means 'well', 'OK', 'satisfactory':

A: *How are you?*

B: *I am **all right**.*

A: *Is everything **all right**?*

B: *Yes, fine thanks. Was your meal **all right**?* Not: ~~Was it an all right meal?~~

All right may be written as **alright**, but **all right** is more common:

*There was an accident and the bus driver was injured, but all the passengers were **alright**.*

ALL RIGHT as an Adverb

We use *all right* as an Adverb to mean 'well', 'OK', 'satisfactorily':

*Jill is really worried about her driving test, but I think she's doing **all right**.*

A: *Is everything going **all right** for you these days?*

B: *Yes, business is good.*

ALL RIGHT as a discourse marker

We use *all right* to show that we want to begin a new topic or a new action:

All right, *can we start the music now please?*

We also use *all right* to show that we accept a point of view, or agree with what needs to be done:

All right, *you have a point but I still think we need to get more advice.*

We can also use *all right* as a question to follow up a statement. This is informal:

A: *I think I will leave at 5. **All right**?*

B: *Yes, that is okay with me.*

EACH

Each is a Determiner or a Pronoun.

EACH: meaning and use

We use *each* to refer to the individual things or persons in a group of two or more:

*We spent five days on the coast and **each** day we swam in the ocean.* (determiner)

There were four rooms, **each** with wonderful views of the garden. (Pronoun)

Each is usually followed by a singular Noun or by one:

Each weekend, they would work on the house.

Not: ~~Each weekends~~ ...

The houses were made of grey stones and mud bricks, and **each one** had a flat roof of pressed earth laid over mats.

EACH OF

We use *each of* before other determiners and before the Plural Object Pronouns *us*, *you* and *them*:

[talking about a hiking club]

A: There are meetings every month to plan events.

B: That sounds like a lot of planning.

C: Do you go to **each of** the meetings?

A: I try to.

They were trying to decide where to go on holiday but the problem was that **each of** them wanted to go to different places.

When we use *each of* with a Plural Noun as subject, it's normally followed by a singular verb:

Each of the buildings is surrounded by high metal fencing.

Each of the horses has won major international races.

Spoken English:

In informal speaking, you will hear people use a Plural Verb form:

A: All twelve of us have decided to go to Argentina together.

B: How will you travel around?

A: We've divided ourselves into three groups and **each of** the groups have hired a car.

For emphasis, we use *each one of* with determiners and Pronouns. When the phrase *each one of* is the subject, the Verb is singular:

Each one of the passport control desks now has a camera as well as a computer.

EACH + Pronouns and Possessives

We use *each* with Plural Pronouns and possessives, especially when we don't want to say *he/she*, *women/men*, etc.:

Each person who joins the gym gets a free bag and **they** get a pass to bring a friend for a free visit. (Each person and they avoids saying *each man and woman* and *he, she*.)

Each member of the community should take pride in **their** local environment.

EACH referring to a Subject

When we use *each* to refer to the Subject of the clause, it usually appears in the normal mid position for Adverbs, between the Subject and the main verb, after the Modal Verb or first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

We **each** agreed to help by contributing some money towards the cost.

We would **each** say a poem or sing a song.

Have you **each** signed the contract?

Husband and wife are **each** entitled to invest up to the maximum of £40,000.

EACH or EVERY?

We use *each* to refer to individual things in a group or a list of two or more things. It is often similar in meaning to *every*, but we use *every* to refer to a group or list of three or more things.

Compare

Each one takes turns cooking dinner in the evenings.	<i>Each</i> stresses individual members of a group. <i>Each</i> refers to two or more people who share the work.
Everyone takes turns cooking dinner in the evenings.	<i>Every</i> stresses all the members of the complete group. <i>Every</i> refers to three or more people.

We use Adverbs such as *almost*, *practically* and *nearly* with *every*, but not with *each*:

Almost every car in the car park was new.

Not: ~~Almost each car~~ ...

Practically every house now has at least two televisions.

Not: ~~Practically each house~~ ...

We can use *each of* + Pronoun or *each of* + Determiner + Noun, but with *every* we must use *every one* + Pronoun or *every one* + Determiner + Noun:

Each of us has a bicycle.

Every one of us has a bicycle.

Not: ~~Every of us~~ ...

Each of the children received a special gift.

Every one of the children received a special gift.

Not: ~~Every of the children~~ ...

EVERY

Every is a determiner.

EVERY: meaning 'each member of a group'

We use *every* + singular Noun to refer individually to all the members of a complete group of something:

*There's a photograph on the wall of **every** child in the school.*

*Try to answer **every** question.*

When *every* refers to the Subject of the clause, we use a singular verb:

Every player wants to be in a winning team.

Not: ~~Every player want~~ ...

Every cook needs good knives and a chopping board.

The negative of *every* is normally *not every*:

Not every Noun has a Plural form.

We use singular Pronouns and possessives to refer back to *every* + Noun, especially in more formal styles, and especially when what we refer to is not human:

Every store has a manager in charge of it.

Every area has its own park.

In less formal styles, the Pronoun or possessive may be Plural :

Every student gets a laptop. They have to give it back at the end of the course.

Every user has their own password.

EVERY: regular situations

We use *every* with a singular Noun to refer to something that happens regularly:

*The festival is held **every August** in Budapest.*

*I leave the house **every morning** at 6 am.*

Not: ~~I leave the house every mornings at 6 am.~~

We use *every* with a number and a Plural Noun to refer to regular intervals of time or numbers:

*There are buses into town **every ten minutes**.*

*He now works from home, travelling to Amsterdam **every two weeks**.*

EVERY DAY or EVERYDAY?

We write two words when *every day* means *each day*. The Adjective *everyday* is one word. It means 'normal' or 'usual':

*The boys meet up **every day** in the park.*

Not: ~~The boys meet up everyday in the park.~~

*In the Soviet Union, poetry was at the centre of **everyday** life.*

EVERY SINGLE

We often use *single* with *every* to emphasise each member of a complete group of people or things:

*He was the only player who played in **every single** match last season.*

*I've got to photocopy **every single** page.*

EVERY ONE or EVERYONE?

We use *every one*, written as two words, to refer back to a Noun we have already mentioned:

*I received more than a hundred letters from him while I was away and I've kept **every one**.*

Everyone, written as one word, means 'every person':

Everyone enjoyed themselves.

We use *every one of* before Pronouns and determiners:

*There are 107 two-letter words in the dictionary and John Catto, an Aberdeen lorry driver, knows **every one of** them.*

*When Jenkins joined the bank, one of his first acts was to make **every one of** the bank's employees reapply for their jobs.*

EVERY OTHER

We use *every other* to mean 'alternate':

*We worked **every other** Sunday.* (One Sunday he worked, the next Sunday he didn't work, the next Sunday he worked, etc.)

*He works in Germany **every other** week.* (One week he works in Germany, the next week he doesn't, the next week he does, etc.)

EVERY: typical errors

- We don't use *every* on its own, without a Noun or without *one*:

*There were five rooms. **Every room** was decorated in a different style.*

Not: *Every was decorated in a different style.*

- We don't use *every* with a Plural Noun:

*I go swimming **every** day.*

Not: *I go swimming every days.*

ALL or EVERY?

All and *every* are determiners.

We use both *all* and *every* to refer to the total number of something. *All* refers to a complete group. *Every* refers to each member of a complete group:

*The questionnaire was sent to **all employees**.*

*The questionnaire was sent to **every employee**.*

We can use *every* to focus on each individual member.

Compare

All passengers must turn off their mobile phones.	refers to the whole group
Every passenger must turn off their mobile phone. (We use <i>their</i> instead of <i>his</i> or <i>her</i> to refer back to a singular Noun (<i>passenger</i>) because we are referring to both male and female passengers.)	focuses on each individual member of the whole group

We can use *all*, but not *every*, on its own without a Noun. We use *everyone* / *everybody* / *everything* instead: *The meeting is at Oriel Hall. It begins at 8 pm and **all** are welcome.*

Not: ... ~~every is welcome~~

***Everyone** is welcome to join the village social club.*

ALL and EVERY + Nouns

The meaning of *all* and *every* is very similar but we use them in different ways. We use *all* with Plural and uncountable Nouns and *every* with singular Nouns:

***All donations** will be sent to the earthquake relief fund.*

***All equipment** must be returned by the end of June.* (uncountable)

***Every donation** is appreciated.*

We can use *all* and *all of* before determiners, but we don't use *every* before determiners:

*I invited **all (of) my** friends.*

Not: ... ~~every my friends~~

ALL (OF) THE

We can use *all* and *all of* before articles (*the*, *a/an*), Demonstratives (*this*, *that*) and possessives (*our*, *his*) but we can't use *every* before them:

[talking about a library]

*It has got **all (of) the** books that have ever been published.*

Not: *It has got every the book* or *It has got the every book*

*She's gone to **all (of) their** concerts this year. She hasn't missed one.*

Not: ... ~~every their concerts~~

ALL DAY, EVERY DAY

We use *all day*, *all week*, *all month* to mean 'one entire day/week/month':

*We spent **all day** at the beach yesterday.*

Every day (week/month) focuses on each individual day (week/month):

*We spent **every day** at the beach in the holidays.*

Not: *We spent all days at the beach*

*Fuel prices are rising **every week**.*

Not: *Fuel prices are rising all weeks.*

ALL or EVERY: typical errors

- We don't use *every* before determiners:

*He sold **all (of) his** books.*

Not: ... ~~every his books~~

- We don't use *every* with uncountable Nouns:

***All (the) information** can be saved in the computer memory.*

Not: ~~Every information can be saved ...~~

- We don't use *every* with Plural Nouns:

*We should organise a trip for **all students**.*

Not: ~~... for every students~~

- We don't use *every* on its own without a Noun; we use *everyone*, *everybody* or *everything* instead:

*He suggested cancelling the trip and **everyone agreed**.*

Not: ~~... every agreed~~

BOTH

We use *both* to refer to two things or people together:

Both those chairs are occupied, I'm afraid. (The two chairs are occupied.)

Are **both** your parents going to Chile? (Are your mother and father going to Chile?)

BOTH with Nouns

When we use *both* before a Determiner (e.g. *a/an, the, she, his*) + Noun, *both* and *both of* can be used:

*She knew **both my children**.* (or ... *both of my children*.)

Both her brothers are living in Canada. (or *Both of her brothers* ...)

We can use *both* before a Noun: *This button starts **both engines** at the same time.*
(or ... *both of the engines* ...)

Are **both cats** female?

BOTH with Pronouns

Pronoun + both

We can use *both* after a Subject Pronoun or an Object Pronoun:

We both prefer classical music.

Let's open **them both** now.

BOTH OF + Object Pronoun

When we use *both* as part of a Subject or Object which is a Pronoun, it may be followed by *of* + an Object Pronoun:

We both dislike soap operas. (Subject Pronoun + *both*) or **Both of us** dislike soap operas. (*both* + *of* + Object Pronoun)

*She looked at **both of us**.*

We usually use *both of* + Object Pronoun after prepositions:

*He shouted at **both of them**.* (preferred to *He shouted at them both*.)

*That'll be so nice **for both of you**.* (preferred to *That'll be so nice for you both*.)

BOTH as a Pronoun

We can use *both* on its own as a Pronoun:

*There are two youth hostels in the city. **Both** are described as expensive, dirty, with poor lighting and poor security.*

*Applicants for this course must speak French or German, preferably **both**.*

BOTH: position

If *both* refers to the Subject of a clause, we can use it in the normal mid position for Adverbs, between the Subject and main verb, after a Modal Verb or the first auxiliary verb, or after *be* as a main verb:

*They **both wanted** to sell the house.* (between the Subject and the main verb)

*They **had both been refused** entry to the nightclub.* (after the first auxiliary or Modal Verb)

*They **were both** very nice, kind and beautiful.* (after *be* as a main verb)

Not: ~~They both were very nice ...~~

BOTH in short answers

We use *both* on its own in short answers:

A: *Would you like something to drink?*

B: *A coffee and a tea, please.*

A: **Both?**

B: *Yeah, one for me and one for Brenda. She's joining us in a minute.*

A: *Are you working on Monday or Wednesday next week?*

B: **Both!** Not: ~~The both.~~

BOTH OF or NEITHER OF in negative clauses

We usually use *neither of* rather than *both of ... not* in negative clauses:

Neither of them can swim. (preferred to *Both of them can't swim*.)

Neither of my brothers lives at home any more. (preferred to *Both of my brothers don't live at home any more*.)

When a negative Verb is used, we use *either (of)*. In informal speaking, we often use a Plural Verb after *either*, even though it is a singular word:

She didn't like **either** dress. (She looked at two dresses.)

A: Are Yvonne and Lesley **both** coming?

B: We don't know if **either** of them are coming. (or, more formally, ... if *either of them is coming*.)

BOTH ... AND as a linking expression

We use *both ... and* to emphasise the link between two things. This makes a stronger connection than *and* alone:

Both Britain **and** France agree on the treaty. (stronger link than *Britain and France agree on the treaty*.)

She played **both** hockey **and** basketball when she was a student. (stronger link than *She played hockey and basketball when she was a student*.)

BOTH: typical errors

- We don't use *both* with a negative verb; we use *either* instead:

There was **not** a considerable difference in percentages for **either** sex in terms of having a Bachelor's degree.

Not: ~~There was not a considerable difference in percentages for both sex. ...~~

- When we use the Verb *be* as a main verb, *both* comes after the verb:

These films are **both** famous with people of all ages ...

Not: ~~These films both are famous ...~~

ELSE

ELSE with SOMEONE, ANYBODY, NOBODY, etc.

We use *else* after words beginning with *any-*, *every-*, *no-* and *some-*, to mean 'other', 'another', 'different' or 'additional'.

This group of words includes:

<i>anybody</i>	<i>everybody</i>	<i>nobody</i>	<i>somebody</i>
<i>anyone</i>	<i>everyone</i>	<i>no one</i>	<i>somewhere</i>
<i>anywhere</i>	<i>everywhere</i>	<i>nowhere</i>	<i>someone</i>

[in a shop; A is the shop assistant, B is the customer]

A: Will there be **anything else**, sir? (Do you want any additional thing(s)?)

B: No thanks, that's it for now.

I was the only one who knew any German. **No one else** had ever done it at school. (No other person had ever learnt it.)

[outside a restaurant] It looks really busy in there. Let's go **somewhere else**. (Let's go to a different place.)

This must be **someone else's** coat. It's not mine.

ELSE with WHO, WHAT, WHERE, etc.

We use *else* after *how*, *what*, *where*, *who* and *why* to mean 'other', 'another', 'different' or 'additional': **What else** do you need apart from new shoes? (What other things do you need apart from new shoes?)

We've invited Jean and Richard. **Who else** should we invite? (What other person or people should we invite?)

Where else have you worked, apart from the airport? (What other place(s) have you worked at?)

We don't use *else* after *which*:

Which other one do you want apart from this blue shirt?

Not: ~~Which else do you want ...?~~

ELSE: OR ELSE

We use *or else* to say what the result will be if something does not happen:

I'll have to leave now, **or else** I'll miss my train. (If I don't leave now, I'll miss my train.)

OTHER, OTHERS, THE OTHER or ANOTHER?

OTHER

Other means 'additional or extra', or 'alternative', or 'different types of'.

OTHER as a Determiner

We can use *other* with singular uncountable Nouns and with Plural Nouns:

*The embassy website has general information about visas. **Other** travel information can be obtained by calling the freephone number.* (additional or extra information)

*Some music calms people; **other** music has the opposite effect.* (different types of music)

*What **other** books by Charles Dickens have you read, apart from 'Oliver Twist'?* (additional or extra books)

*This one's too big. Do you have it in **other** sizes?* (alternative sizes)

If we use *other* before a singular countable Noun, we must use another Determiner before it:

*I don't like the red one. I prefer **the other** colour.*

Not: ~~I prefer other colour.~~

*Jeremy is at university; **our other** son is still at school.*

*He got 100% in the final examination. **No other** student has ever achieved that.*

*There's **one other** thing we need to discuss before we finish.*

Warning:

Other as a Determiner does not have a Plural form:

*Mandy and Charlotte stayed behind. The **other** girls went home.*

Not: ~~The others girls ...~~

OTHER as a Pronoun

We can use *other* as a Pronoun. As a Pronoun, *other* has a Plural form, *others*:

*We have to solve this problem, more than any **other**, today.*

*I'll attach two photos to this email and I'll send **others** tomorrow.*

THE OTHER

THE OTHER as a Determiner

The other with a singular Noun means the second of two things or people, or the opposite of a set of two:

*This computer here is new. **The other** computer is about five years old.*

A: *D'you know the Indian restaurant in Palmer Street?*

B: *Yes.*

A: *Well, the gift shop is on **the other** side of the street, directly opposite.* (the opposite side)

The other with a Plural Noun means the remaining people or things in a group or set:

*Joel and Karen are here, but where are **the other** kids?* (the remaining people in a group)

*Where are **the other** two dinner plates? I can only find four.* (the remaining things in a set – here six plates)

THE OTHER as a Pronoun

We can use *the other* as a Pronoun, especially to refer back to something which has been mentioned already in the sentence:

*He had his hat in one hand and a bunch of flowers in **the other**.*

*She has two kittens, one is black and **the other** is all white.*

ANOTHER

When we use the indefinite Article *an* before *other*, we write it as one word: *another*.

Another means 'one more' or 'an additional or extra', or 'an alternative or different'.

ANOTHER as a Determiner

We use *another* with singular Nouns:

*Would you like **another** cup of coffee?*

*You've met Linda, but I have **another** sister who you haven't met, called Margaret.*

*I don't like this place. Is there **another** café around here we could go to?* (alternative or different)

ANOTHER as a Pronoun

We can use *another* as a Pronoun:

*The applications are examined by one committee, then passed on to **another**.*

OTHER, OTHERS, THE OTHER or ANOTHER: typical errors

- When *other* is a determiner, it does not have a Plural form:

*These boxes are for books. The **other** boxes are for clothes.*

Not: ~~The other boxes ...~~

- When *other* as a Pronoun refers to more than one person or thing, it takes the Plural form, *others*:

*Some scientists think we should reduce the number of flights to prevent global warming; **others** disagree.*

Not: ... ~~other disagree.~~

- Other* must have a Determiner before it when it comes in front of a singular countable Noun. If the Noun is indefinite (e.g. *a book, a woman, an idea*), we use *another*:

*I've posted the first package. What shall I do with **that other** package?*

Not: ~~What shall I do with other package?~~

*After a month in Bolivia, I was ready to move to **another** country.*

Not: ... ~~to move to other country.~~

- We write *another* as one word:

*There is **another** car park a little further down the same street.*

Not: ~~There is an other car park ...~~

- Another* is singular. We don't use it with Plural Nouns:

***Other** interesting places to visit include the old harbour and the castle.* Not: ~~**Another** interesting places to visit ...~~

Frequency Adverbs meaning 'not very often'

HARDLY EVER, RARELY, SCARCELY, SELDOM

Hardly ever, rarely, scarcely and seldom are Frequency Adverbs. We can use them to refer to things that almost never happen, or do not happen very often. They have a negative meaning. We use them without *not*. *Rarely, scarcely and seldom* are more common in writing than in speaking: *He **hardly ever** smiles.*

*Providing fresh trout for dinner was **rarely** a problem.* (a trout is a type of fish)

*She **scarcely** saw her grandchildren.*

*Griffin, the physics teacher, **seldom** shouted.*

HARDLY and SCARCELY meaning 'almost not at all'

Hardly and *scarcely* can mean 'almost not at all' or 'only just'. *Hardly* is much more common than *scarcely*, and *scarcely* is more formal:

*Jen was so tired. She could **scarcely** keep her eyes open.*

*I **hardly** know them. I've only met them once.*

HARDLY ANY, HARDLY EVER

We often use *hardly* before *any, anyone, anybody, anything* and *ever* in negative clauses, but not before *no, none, no one, nobody, nothing* or *never*:

*At first, **hardly** anyone came.* (almost no one came)

Not: ~~At first hardly no one came.~~

*There was **hardly** anything to eat.*

*She lives in Scotland so we **hardly** ever see her now, but I like to keep in touch.*

HARDLY AT ALL

We sometimes use *at all* after the Verb, Adjective or Noun which follows *hardly* to give greater emphasis: *I **hardly** slept **at all** last night.*

HARDLY and VERY LITTLE, VERY FEW

Hardly + any(thing) has a similar meaning to *very little* or *very few*:

*I **hardly** ate **anything** yesterday.* (= I ate very little yesterday.)

*She **hardly** buys **any** new clothes *at all*.* (= She buys very few new clothes.)

Warning: *Hardly* is not the Adverb form of the Adjective *hard*. The Adverb form of *hard* is also *hard*.

Word order

We usually put these Adverbs in mid position, between the Subject and main Verb, after the Modal Verb or first Helper Verb, or after main Verb **be**. In more formal styles, we put them in front position and invert the Subject and Verb. If there is no Helper Verb or Modal Verb, we use **do / does / did**.

Compare

Neutral	Formal
<i>She hardly ever went on holiday.</i>	<i>Hardly ever did she go on holiday.</i>
<i>I had seldom seen so many people out on the streets.</i>	<i>Seldom had I seen so many people out on the streets.</i>
<i>Things are rarely as bad as you think they're going to be.</i>	<i>Rarely are things as bad as you think they're going to be.</i>

In more formal styles, to refer to something happening immediately after something else, we use *scarcely/hardly ... when*. We move *hardly* and *scarcely* to front position and invert the Subject and Verb: **Scarcely** [V]had [S]I got myself comfortable and closed my eyes **when** I heard the sound of the alarm.

SCARCELY

Scarcely means 'almost not at all'. It is quite formal. It usually comes in the normal mid position for adverbs (between the Subject and the main Verb, or after the Modal Verb or first Helper Verb, or after *be* as a main Verb):

*We **scarcely** had time to think and had to act immediately.*

*These days there is **scarcely** a week without a major political scandal.* (after *be*)

*I could **scarcely** believe that she had once killed someone.* (after modal *could* = I could almost not believe it at all)

We can also use *scarcely* when something happens immediately after something else:

*Lena had **scarcely** got through the door **when** the phone rang.* It was Mrs Bate. (Lena entered the house; the phone rang immediately.)

If we use *scarcely* in front position, we invert the subject and the verb. This usage is quite formal:

Scarcely had the demonstration started when trouble broke out and the police moved in to arrest people.

In all of the examples above, we can use *hardly* instead of *scarcely*. *Scarcely* is more formal and less common than *hardly*.

OFTEN

Often is an Adverb meaning 'many times on different occasions'. Like many other short Adverbs, we use it in front position, in mid position (between the Subject and the main Verb, or after the Modal Verb or first Helper Verb, or after *be* as a main Verb) or in end position:

*I **often** see Christine when I'm in town. She must do her shopping in the same places as me.*

A: I love that Indian restaurant on Mill Street.

B: D'you go there **often**?

A: Not very **often**, I mean, maybe once a month or so.

Front position is the least common position, and sounds more formal:

*We used to see him on the beach. **Often** he would go for a swim, then he would come and talk to us.*

We can emphasise *often* with *very* or *quite*:

*I **very often** meet him as he's coming out of work.*

*Maggie is old now and she **quite often** forgets things.*

We use *how often* to ask about the frequency of something:

A: **How often** do you go swimming?

B: About three or four times a week, usually.

SOMETIMES or SOMETIME?

Sometimes means 'not always or not often': *Sometime* means 'at an unknown or undecided time in the future or the past':

*We usually played football at school, but **sometimes** we played hockey.*

*I **sometimes** wonder whether I should give up my job and just travel.*

*Why don't you come over and have dinner with us **sometime**?* (at an undecided time in the future)

*I knew I had met her **sometime**, but I couldn't remember when.*

NEVER or NOT ... EVER?

We can use *not ... ever* instead of *never*, but *never* is much more common:

*She has **never** been a friend of ours.* (or, less common, *She **hasn't ever** been a friend of ours.*)

***Never** forget where you came from, your family, your childhood friends.* (or, less common, ***Don't ever** forget where you came from ...*)

A: Why don't you go to college and get a degree?

B: I have **not** really **ever** thought about it. I am too old now anyway. (or, more common, I have **never** really thought about it.)

Warning:

We do not use **not ... ever** at the beginning of a statement (in front position):

***Never** had they seen so many strangers in their village all at the same time.* Not: ~~*Not ever had they seen so many strangers ...*~~

Determiners followed by Pronouns

We can use these determiners + *of* before Pronouns:

<i>(a) few, fewer</i>	<i>each</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>one, two, three, etc.</i>
<i>(a) little</i>	<i>either</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>several</i>
<i>another</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>most</i>	<i>some</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>every one</i>	<i>much</i>	<i>those</i>
<i>any</i>	<i>half</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>which</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>less</i>		

*We had twenty tickets to sell and we sold **all of them** in less than an hour.*

A: Which box do you want?

B: **Either of them** will be fine, thanks.

*We've got loads of umbrellas – you can borrow **one of ours**.*

Substitution

Substitution: purpose

In speaking and in writing, we try to avoid repeating words, phrases or clauses. We use substitute forms to do this:

A: Pam always brings us back chocolates when she travels.

B: Oh, nice.

A: She brought some Belgian **ones** from her last trip, which were delicious.

B: Lucky you!

(A uses *ones* to avoid repeating *chocolates*.)

[A has a problem with her computer]

A: Do you think I should phone Barry and ask him to come and look at it.

B: Yes, **do**. (B uses *do* to avoid repeating phone Barry and ask him to come and look at it.)

We can use substitution to refer backwards or forwards. Forward substitution is far less common than backward substitution (The Noun being referred to is underlined in the examples.):

*If you need **them**, there are nails in the toolbox* (forward substitution).

A large saucepan** is what we need for making jam, but I do not have **one (backward substitution).

Substitution: what forms can we use?

We can use many different words and phrases in substitution, including words such as *both, either, some* (indefinite quantifying Pronouns), *do* and *so*, and expressions such as *the same* and *thus*.

Indefinite quantifying Pronouns

The following words and phrases are commonly used as substitutes:

<i>(a) little</i>	<i>both</i>	<i>few</i>	<i>much</i>	<i>other(s)</i>
<i>another</i>	<i>each</i>	<i>half</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>several</i>
<i>all</i>	<i>either</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>none</i>	<i>some</i>
<i>any</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>one(s)</i>	

A: There is this card with a clown on it and this one with a monkey. Which do you think Mark would prefer?

B: I think he would like **either**.
 A: Does she have a lot of friends at work?
 B: No, not **one**.

Substituting with DO

We use *do, do so, do it, do the same* to substitute for a Verb and whatever accompanies it (complement):

A: We always have toast and coffee in the morning.
 B: We **do** too. I can't function without breakfast. (Do substitutes for have toast and coffee in the morning.)

NO or NOT?

No and **not** are the two most common words we use to indicate negation. We use **no** before a Noun phrase:

*There is **no** address on the envelope.*
 [parent to child]

No biscuits before dinner!

No decisions have been made.

We use **not** with any other phrase or clause:

*It's **not** often that you stop and think about the way you breathe.*

Not suitable for children under 15.

Not surprisingly, it was a tense match but eventually the more experienced Australians won.

A: Do you go cycling all year round?

B: **Not** in the winter.

Not: ~~No in the winter.~~

NO or NOT ANY?

There is very little difference in meaning between *There is / are no + Noun* and *There isn't/aren't any + Noun*:

*There is **no** reason to be afraid of her. (or There is **not any** reason to be afraid of her.)*

*There are **no** eggs in the fridge. (or There are **not any** eggs in the fridge.)*

No + Noun often makes the negative stronger. In speaking, we often stress **no**.

Compare

<i>He paid no attention to what I was saying. (stronger)</i>	<i>He didn't pay any attention to what I was saying.</i>
<i>I've decided that I have no alternative. (stronger)</i>	<i>I've decided that I don't have any alternative.</i>

NO or NOT A / AN?

When a Noun has an ungradable meaning (it is either something or it is not) we cannot use *no + Noun*:

*A potato is **not a** fruit.*

Not: ~~A potato is no fruit.~~

When a Noun has a gradable meaning, *no + Noun* means the same as *not a/an + Noun*: [a football manager talking about signing a new player]

*It's **no** secret that we are interested. (= It's **not a** secret. A secret is gradable. Something can be more of a secret than something else.)*

Responding to a question

We often use *no* to respond to a *yes-no* question, or to agree with a negative statement.

We don't use *not* on its own in this way:

A: Do you need anything from the shops?

B: **No**. I went earlier, thanks.

A: He's not going to get any better.

B: **No**. You're right.

Not: ~~Not. You're right.~~

NO PROBLEM, NO GOOD, NOT WORTH

We use *no* and *not* in some common fixed expressions:

A: When you see Alan, can you give him this letter?

B: Yes sure, **no problem**.

*She had **no idea** what time they were arriving.*

*It's **no good** standing around watching. Do something!*

*You've got **no chance** of getting a ticket now. They're all sold out.*

*It's **not worth** taking a taxi. We can walk.*

WORTH or WORTHWHILE?

Worth and *worthwhile* are adjectives.

Worth is only used after verbs such as *be*, *seem*, *look* (as a predicative adjective). It means 'having a particular value', especially in money:

A: I wonder how much the house is **worth**?

B: About half a million, probably.

To be worth doing something is a common expression. It means that something is useful or important enough to do:

A: I have not had a reply to my email to Jane. **Is it worth phoning** her, do you think? (Would it be useful to phone her?)

B: You could try, I suppose.

*We decided **it was not worth going** all the way to London to buy books we could get on the Internet.*

To be worth it means 'to be of reasonable or good value for the price':

*A business class ticket cost £2,000, but **it was worth it** for such a long flight. It was very comfortable.*

We use *worthwhile* before a noun (as an attributive adjective) or after verbs such as *be*, *seem*, *look* (as a predicative adjective). It means 'useful', 'important' or 'good enough to be a suitable reward for the money or time spent or the effort made':

*Do you think working in a supermarket is a **worthwhile** career for a highly intelligent person?*

*We had thought of buying a bigger car, but we did not think it was **worthwhile**, since there is just the two of us.*

NO, NONE and NONE OF

No and *none of* are Determiners. *None* is a Pronoun. *No*, *none* and *none of* indicate negation.

NO as negative Article

We use *no* as negative Article directly before Nouns:

*I've got **no** time to waste.*

*There are **no** people I recognise here.*

*She says she has **no** friends.*

NONE

None is the Pronoun form of *no*. *None* means 'not one' or 'not any'. We use it as a Pronoun to replace countable and uncountable nouns. We use it as subject or object: *Storrie stared ... and seemed to try to find some strength which would let her speak. But **none** came.* (No strength came.)

*My mother had two brothers. My father had **none**.* (My father didn't have any brothers.)

A: What reasons did he give?

B: **None**.

When *none* is the subject, the verb is either singular or plural depending on what it is referring to.

*I am always looking for inspiration. **None** ever **comes**.*

*She's always looking for ideas. **None** ever **come**.*

Warning:

We do not use *none* where we mean *no one* or *nobody*:

*They had a wonderful time and luckily **no one** was injured.*

Not: ... and luckily ~~none~~ was injured.

NONE OF

We use *none of* with *of* before *the*, demonstratives (*this*, *that*), possessives (*my*, *your*) or Pronouns:

***None of** his old friends knew what had happened to him.*

*It doesn't matter. **None of** it was your fault.*

We don't use *none of* when there is already a negative word (*not*, *n't*) in the clause:

*She doesn't remember **any of** us.*

Not: ~~She doesn't remember none of us.~~

Warning:

When we are referring to two things or people, we use *neither of* rather than *none of*:

*We sat down at the table, just the two of us. He carried on eating his food. **Neither of** us said anything.*

Not: ~~None of us said anything.~~

In formal styles, we use *none of* with a singular verb when it is the subject. However, in informal speaking, people often use plural verbs:

***None of** that surprises me.*

*Indeed, **none of** his novels is well shaped or well written.*

None of the products have been tested on animals and all the bottles are recyclable.
(informal)

Typical error

- We don't use *none* directly before nouns. We use *no* + noun or *none of* + noun:

No children in my group caused any trouble. (or **None of** the children in my group ...)

Not: ~~None children in my group~~ ...

LESS or FEWER?

We use the quantifiers *less* and *fewer* to talk about quantities, amounts and degree.

Less and *fewer* are comparative words.

Less is the comparative form of *little*. *Fewer* is the comparative form of *few*.

LESS and FEWER with a Noun

We usually use *less* with uncountable Nouns. We use *fewer* with Plural Nouns:

*I do **less work** at weekends than I used to.*

*Better cycle routes would mean **fewer cars** and **fewer accidents**.*

Warning:

You will often hear *less* used with Plural countable Nouns in informal spoken situations, but traditionally it is not considered to be correct:

*We've got **less** pizzas than we need. There's ten people and only eight pizzas.*
(traditionally correct usage: fewer pizzas)

LESS OF and FEWER OF

When we use *fewer* or *less* before articles (*a/an, the*), Demonstratives (*this, that*), possessives (*my, your*) or Pronouns (*him, them*), we need to use *of*. We use *less of* with singular Nouns and *fewer of* with Plural Nouns:

*It was funny to begin with, but as time went on, it became **less of a joke**.*

*In ten years' time, more and more people will be demanding information twenty-four hours a day, from all parts of the world. **Fewer of them** will be getting that information from newspapers which arrive hours after the news has occurred.*

LESS and FEWER without a Noun

We can leave out the Noun when it is obvious:

*Every year in Britain about 5,000 people die on the roads. **Fewer** are killed at work.*
(fewer people)

LITTLE, A LITTLE, FEW, A FEW

(A) *little* and (a) *few* are quantifiers meaning 'some'. *Little* and *few* have negative meanings. We use them to mean 'not as much as may be expected or wished for'.

Compare

<i>All she wanted was a few moments on her own.</i>	some, a small number
<i>She had few moments on her own.</i>	not many/almost none
<i>She saves a little money every month.</i>	some, a small amount
<i>They had little money to spend.</i>	not much/almost nothing
A: <i>Have you got any money?</i> B: Yes, a little .	some, a small amount
A: <i>Have you got any money?</i> B: No, very little .	not much/almost nothing

A LITTLE, A FEW with a Noun

We use *a little* with singular uncountable Nouns. We use *a few* with Plural countable Nouns:

*Mary said nothing, but she drank some tea and ate **a little** bread.*

*We stayed **a few** days in Florence and visited the museums.*

LITTLE, FEW with a Noun

We use *little* with uncountable Nouns. We use *few* with Plural countable Nouns. They are used in formal contexts:

*I'm not very happy about it but I suppose I have **little** choice.*

***Few** cities anywhere in Europe can match the cultural richness of Berlin.*

[talking about a period of history]

*At that time **few** people travelled who didn't have to.*

(A) LITTLE, (A) FEW without a Noun

We can use (a) *little* and (a) *few* as Pronouns. We can use them to substitute for a Noun when it is obvious from the context:

*After that, she began to tell them **a little** about her life in Scotland, particularly her life with the Rosenblooms.*

*Don't take all the strawberries. Just have **a few**.* (Just have a few strawberries.)

Little and few are not very common without a Noun. We use them in formal contexts:

***Little** is known about his upbringing and education.*

***Few** would be in favour of police officers carrying weapons.*

(A) LITTLE OF, (A) FEW OF

We use *of* with (a) *little* and (a) *few* when they come before articles (a/an, the), Demonstratives (*this, that*), Possessives (*my, your*) or Pronouns (*him, them*):

*Put the flour into a bowl, blend with **a little of** the milk, beat in the egg yolks, then the sugar and the rest of the milk.*

***A few of** his films were seen abroad.*

A LITTLE: Adverb

We use *a little* as an Adverb of degree. It is more formal than *a bit*:

*He smiled just **a little**. Her hands were shaking **a little**.*

A LITTLE with Adjectives, Determiners, Adverbs

We use *a little* before Adjectives and Adverbs to modify them. It is more formal than *a bit*:

*She seemed to be getting **a little** better.*

*What you need is **a little** more romance.*

We often use *a little* with *bit*:

*I find that **a little bit** hard to believe.*

A BIT

We use *a bit (of)* or *bits (of)* to refer to quantities. The phrases can refer to both abstract and concrete things. They are an informal alternative to *some*, or *a piece of* or *pieces of*:

*Do they need **a bit of** help with their luggage? (or ... **some** help ...)*

*There were **bits of** glass everywhere. (or ... **pieces of** glass ...)*

*Have you lost **a bit of** weight? (or ... **some** weight?)*

*The storm had broken the fence into **bits**.* (meaning 'into small pieces')

A bit or bits often have deliberately vague and informal meanings:

*I've given him **a few bits of** advice.*

These words can also soften the meaning, so that a statement is not too direct:

*Wearing those shoes is **a bit of** a problem for her, I'm afraid.*

We also use **a bit** to modify Adjectives, or as an Adverb. It is more informal than *a little*:

*They had got **a bit** tired working in the garden.*

*Can you wait **a bit** for us? We're in heavy traffic.*

A bit is also used to modify comparative Adjectives and comparative determiners:

*The climate in New Zealand was **a bit** nicer than we had expected.*

However, *a bit* and *a bit of* are not normally used to modify comparative Adjectives before Nouns:

*It was **a bit** more entertaining than the last play we saw.*

Not: ~~a bit more entertaining play.~~ or ~~a bit more of entertaining play.~~

LITTLE: Adjective

We use *little* as an Adjective to mean 'small':

*'You're going to have a **little** baby brother, Martha,' her mother told her one day.*

*I know a **little** restaurant not far from here.*

LITTLE or SMALL?

*Little and small have similar meanings. We use *small* to refer only to size. We use *little* to refer to size, but also to express a positive emotion (especially with words like *beautiful, lovely, wonderful*):*

*He's a **small** baby.* (He's smaller than average.)

*He's a lovely **little** baby.* (He's lovely and small.)

*There's a wonderful **little** café at the end of the street.* (preferred to: *There's a wonderful small café at the end of the street.*)

MORE or LESS

"More or less" means 'mostly', 'nearly' or 'approximately'. We use it in mid position (between the Subject and main verb, or after the Modal Verb or first Helper Verb, or after *be* as a main Verb). It is slightly informal:

We had **more or less** finished, so we decided to go for lunch.

We commonly use it after numbers and measurements:

It should cost you about £100, **more or less**.

Warning:

We don't normally use *more or less* before people's ages:

She's **about** 35, I think.

Not: She's ~~more or less~~ 35.

Nouns: Countable and Uncountable

Countable Nouns

Some Nouns refer to things which, in English, are treated as separate items which can be counted. These are called countable Nouns. Here are some examples:

a **car**, three **cars**

my **cousin**, my two **cousins**

a **book**, a box full of **books**

a **city**, several big **cities**

Singular and Plural

Countable Nouns can be singular or Plural . They can be used with *a/an* and with numbers and many other determiners (e.g. *these*, *a few*):

She's got **two sisters** and **a** younger **brother**.

Most people buy **things** like **cameras** and **MP3-players** online **these days**.

These shoes look old now.

I'll take **a few magazines** with me for **the flight**.

Uncountable Nouns

In English grammar, some things are seen as a whole or mass. These are called Uncountable Nouns, because they cannot be separated or counted.

Some examples of uncountable Nouns are:

Ideas and experiences: *advice, information, progress, news, luck, fun, work*

Materials and substances: *water, rice, cement, gold, milk*

Weather words: *weather, thunder, lightning, rain, snow*

Names for groups or collections of things: *furniture, equipment, rubbish, luggage*

Other common uncountable Nouns include: *accommodation, baggage, homework, knowledge, money, permission, research, traffic, travel*. These Nouns are not used with *a/an* or numbers and are not used in the Plural .

We're going to get new **furniture** for the living room.

Not: ~~We're going to get a new furniture for the living room.~~ or ~~We're going to get new furnitures for the living room.~~

We had terrible **weather** last week.

Not: ~~We had a terrible weather last week.~~

We need **rice** next time we go shopping.

Some Nouns always have Plural form but they are uncountable because we cannot use numbers with them.

I bought **two pairs of trousers**.

Not: ~~I bought two trousers.~~

Other Nouns of this type are: *shorts, pants, pyjamas, glasses (for the eyes), binoculars, scissors*.

Warning:

Some Nouns which are uncountable in English are countable in other languages (e.g. *accommodation, advice, furniture, information*):

They can give you some **information** about **accommodation** at the tourist office. Not:

~~They can give you some informations about accommodations at the tourist office.~~

Can you give me some **advice** about buying a second-hand car?

Not: ~~Can you give me some advices about buying a second hand car?~~

A good learner's dictionary will tell you whether a Noun is countable or uncountable.

Quantity expressions (a bit of / a piece of)

To refer to one or more quantities of an uncountable Noun, expressions such as *a bit of*, *a piece of*, *an item of* or words for containers and measures must be used:

He bought **a** very expensive **piece of furniture** for his new apartment.

Maggie always has some exciting **bits of news** when she comes to see us.

I think we'll need **five bags of cement** for the patio.

There's **a litre of milk** in the fridge for you. And I bought you **a bar of chocolate**.

Determiners (my, some, the)

Uncountable Nouns can be used with certain determiners (e.g. *my, her, some, any, no, the, this, that*) and expressions of quantity (e.g. *a lot of, (a) little*):

*They gave me **some information** about courses and scholarships and things.*

*Have you heard **the news**? Fran's getting engaged.*

*She's been studying hard and has made **a lot of progress**.*

*There's **no work** to do here, so you can go home if you like.*

***This milk**'s a bit old, I'm afraid.*

Countable phrases for Uncountable Nouns

We can sometimes use countable Noun phrases to talk about an individual example of the thing an uncountable Noun refers to.

Uncountable	Countable
<i>accommodation</i>	<i>a house, a flat, a place to live, a place to stay</i>
<i>baggage/luggage</i>	<i>a suitcase, a bag, a rucksack</i>
<i>bread</i>	<i>a loaf (of bread), a (bread) roll</i>
<i>lightning</i>	<i>a flash of lightning</i>
<i>luck</i>	<i>a stroke of luck</i>
<i>money</i>	<i>a note, a coin, a sum of money, a euro, a dollar</i>
<i>poetry</i>	<i>a poem</i>
<i>rain</i>	<i>a shower, a downpour, a storm</i>
<i>travel</i>	<i>a journey, a trip</i>
<i>work</i>	<i>a job, a task</i>

*Finding **a place to live** is difficult if you're a student and you've got no money. (or Finding **accommodation** ...)*

Not: ~~Finding an accommodation ...~~

*She brought **two big suitcases** and **a rucksack** with her.*

Not: ~~She brought two big luggages ...~~

*I read **a poem** once about someone riding a horse at night.*

Not: ~~I read a poetry ...~~

*We went on **a trip** to the Amazon when we were in Brazil.*

Not: ~~We went on a travel ...~~

Countable and Uncountable Nouns with different meanings

Some Nouns can be used either countably or uncountably, but with different meanings.

Compare

Countable Use	Uncountable Use
<i>We bought a new iron and an ironing board.</i>	<i>People believed that ships made of iron would sink.</i>
<i>I broke a glass yesterday.</i>	<i>The table was made of hardened glass.</i>
<i>Would you like a chocolate?</i>	<i>Would you like some chocolate?</i>
<i>Let's get a paper and see what's on at the cinema.</i>	<i>The printer has run out of paper.</i>
<i>'Hamlet' is one of Shakespeare's most famous works.</i>	<i>I had work to do so I couldn't go out.</i>

Uncountable Nouns used countably

Measures and examples

Sometimes uncountable Nouns are used countably, to mean 'a measure of something' or 'a type or example of something':

*Can I have **two teas** and **one coffee**, please?* (two cups of tea and one cup of coffee ...?)

A: *How many **sugars** do you want in your tea?* (How many spoonfuls/lumps of sugar?)

B: Just one, please.

Abstract Nouns

Some abstract Nouns can be used uncountably or countably. The uncountable use has a more general meaning. The countable use has a more particular meaning. Nouns of this type include: *experience, hatred, help, knowledge, life, love, sleep, time, understanding.*

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Compare

Uncountable Use	Countable Use
<i>Good education is the best investment in Britain's future.</i> (education in general)	<i>The first daughter had a very expensive education at a private school in France.</i> (the time one person spent at school)
<i>Love is like a physical pain for some people.</i> (love in general/all love)	<i>I've always had a love of poetry, ever since I was a child.</i> (a specific liking for something)
<i>They have a quiz every week, with questions about general knowledge.</i> (all knowledge/knowledge in general)	<i>The job requires a knowledge of statistics and basic computing.</i> (a specific type of knowledge)
<i>Time passes more and more quickly as you grow older.</i> (time in general)	<i>We had a great time in Ibiza. We didn't want to come home.</i> (a specific period of time)

Determiners used as Pronouns

Determiners are words such as *the, my, this, some, twenty, each, any*, which are used before Nouns. We can also use some determiners as Pronouns (i.e. without a Noun following and when the meaning is clear without including the Noun).

Compare

Before A Noun	As A Pronoun (No Noun Following)
<i>Would you like some bread with your soup?</i>	<i>I've got a bar of chocolate here. Would you like some?</i>
<i>We didn't have enough volunteers to make the project work.</i>	A: Do you need more paper? B: No. I've got enough , thanks.
<i>Several people complained about the slow service.</i>	<i>It's not just one school that is in financial difficulty; there are several.</i>

Determiners which can be used as Pronouns in this way are:

<i>(a) few</i>	<i>either</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>neither</i>	<i>these</i>
<i>(a) little</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>one, two, three, etc.</i>	<i>this</i>
<i>another</i>	<i>fewer</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>several</i>	<i>those</i>
<i>any</i>	<i>fewest</i>	<i>most</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>which</i>
<i>both</i>	<i>least</i>	<i>much</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>whose</i>
<i>each</i>				

*I've had a lot of pairs of sunglasses of different kinds, and I've lost **a few** over the years on various trips.*

A: D'you want tea or coffee?

B: **Neither**, thanks. I've just had breakfast.

A: Which shoes do you want to put on?

B: Pass me **those**, please. The black ones.

Approximations (around four o'clock)

When we speak, we often try not to be too exact or factual because it can sound very direct. As a result, we add expressions to make what we say more approximate or vague.

Compare

<i>I've lived here for two years and four months.</i>	This might sound too factual or exact.
<i>I've lived here for almost two and a half years.</i>	This is more approximate and sounds less factual and exact.

Before a number

*We'll pick you up **around** six.*

*In this country, we usually have dinner at **about** seven o'clock.*

A: How long have you been living here?

B: For **about** three years.

***Roughly** 30 people are coming to my graduation party.*

***Up to** 20 people are still missing after the earthquake.*

*She said she'd call here **at or around** ten o'clock.*

We also use approximation in formal speech and writing:

*The accident occurred at **approximately** 9 am.*

***In the region of** 40 jobs are to be lost at the factory.*

***As many as** 300 people were on the train when it broke down.*

After a number

Number + -odd

Forty-odd people turned up at the demonstration. (at least 40 and maybe more)

A: How much oil does the tank hold?

B: I'm not sure. **Fifty-odd** litres, I'd say. (at least 50 litres and maybe more)

We do not use -odd to talk about time:

*It's **about** seven o'clock at least.*

Not: ... ~~seven-odd~~ o'clock ...

Number + head Noun + OR SO

A: Can I have a lift to town with you?

B: Absolutely. I'll be leaving in **ten minutes or so**.

Number + head Noun + OR SOMETHING

A: What's the weight limit for luggage?

B: **20 kilos or something**.

Number + head Noun + OR THEREABOUTS (more formal)

[someone is giving directions]

*Once you get to the school, turn left and our house is the first one on the left, **half a mile, or thereabouts**, up that road.*

Number + MORE or LESS (informal speaking)

*This is going to cost **four hundred pounds, more or less**. (preferred to *This is going to cost more or less four hundred pounds.*)*

OR used between numbers

*The bus from the airport usually costs just **three or four** pounds.*

Adding the suffix **-ish** (in informal speaking)

A: What time are we going out?

B: I think Emma said that she would pick us up at **sixish**.

A: What age are Samantha's children?

B: Her daughter is **fourish** and her son must be at least seven.

AROUND or ROUND?

Around and *round* are prepositions or Adverbs. We use *around* and *round* when we refer to movements in circles or from one place to another. *Around* and *round* can both be used. *Around* is more common in American English. *Round* is a little more common in speaking:

*The earth goes **round** the sun.* (movement in circles)

*We spent a very pleasant day walking **round** the town.* (movement from one place to another)

*Now they are retired, they are planning a trip **around** the world.*

We also commonly use *around* and *round* in phrasal verbs:

*Can you pass these application forms **around** to all the people present?*

*We spent the whole day moving **round** some furniture in the bedroom.*

Around and *round* also mean 'in different places' and 'here and there':

*People were panicking and running **round** and shouting.*

A: Where's Jill?

B: I know she's **around** somewhere in the office.

Around can also mean 'approximately':

A: How old do you think the castle is?

B: I'd say **around** 500 years.

ABOUT

About is a Preposition or an Adverb.

ABOUT as a Preposition

The most common meaning of *about* as a Preposition is 'on the Subject of' or 'connected with':

*Do you know anything **about** cricket?*

*I'm very worried **about** my brother. He's not well.*

ABOUT is not as specific as ON.

Compare

He wrote a book about the Spanish Civil War.	<i>about</i> is more general and slightly more informal.
He wrote a book on Barcelona during the Spanish Civil War.	<i>on</i> focuses on more specific and detailed information and is slightly more formal.

Warning:

There are some words we use with *about*:

complain, concern, excited, happy and worry:

He never **complains about** the pain.

Everybody was very **concerned about** the accident.

I'm very **excited about** coming to France and I can't wait to see you.

I'm very **happy about** my trip.

Please don't **worry about** me.

Attention: There are some words we do not use with *about*:

aware, consider, description, discuss, experience and mention:

She is not **aware** of the rules of the road.

Have you **considered** changing your career?

Can you give us a **description** of the bag?

Let's **discuss** the new schedule.

They have no **experience** of looking after children.

She did not **mention** where the keys were.

ABOUT as an Adverb

We use *about* as an Adverb when we talk about time, number and quantity. *About* makes the time, number or quantity less specific and more approximate:

Specific	Approximate
Dinner is at six.	Dinner is about six.
We moved house three years ago.	We moved house about three years ago.

About can also be used (though less commonly) as an Adverb with a meaning of 'around':

*I was thinking of all the pollution that's floating **about** in the air.*

BE ABOUT TO

We use the modal expression *be about to* as an Adjective in the modal expression *be about to* to refer to something that will happen very soon in the future: *He was **about** to phone the police.*

ON, ONTO

On and *onto* are prepositions.

We use *on* when we refer to a position on a surface (*on the table, on the ocean, on the moon, on the roof, on the bus*):

*Your keys are **on** the table.*

*The men were standing **on** the roof.*

We use *onto* to talk about direction or movement to a position on a surface, usually with a Verb that expresses movement:

*The cat climbed **onto** the roof.*

*She emptied the suitcase full of clothes **onto** the floor.*

We use *on* to describe a position along a road or river or by the sea or by a lake:

*The hotel is **on** the road opposite the beach.*

*They have a fabulous house **on** a lake in Ireland.*

We use *onto* to describe movement towards an end position along a road or river:

*The path leads **onto** the main road.*

We use *on* or *onto* with very little difference in meaning to refer to attachment or movement of something to something else. *Onto* gives a stronger feeling of movement:

*There is a battery pack with the camera that you can clip **onto** a belt.*

*You can save the data **onto** your hard disk.*

*Have you put the pictures **on** your memory stick?*

THING and STUFF

THING

We use the general Noun *thing* more commonly in speaking than in writing.

It is most commonly used to refer to physical objects, but we also use *thing* to refer to ideas, actions and events:

*What's that **thing** over there in the car park?*

*She always says that she hasn't a **thing** to wear.*

*Can you put your **things** in the upstairs room? (things here = personal belongings)*

*Anger is a very dangerous **thing** in a young man.*

*So don't rush him. These **things** take time and we certainly don't want to upset him.*

*A holiday? That's just the **thing** for you.*

A: Hi Jack. How's **things**? (*How's things* or *How're things* is a common informal greeting.)

B: Fine, thanks. How are you?

We often use *thing* in a similar way to *wh*-cleft constructions (*What we need to do is ...*).

It is also often used with *to* and with *that*-clauses (underlined):

*The **thing** we need to know is why they missed the train.*

*The **thing** they said that we shouldn't forget was to take a boat trip on the lake.*

*The best **thing** to do is to phone the doctor at once.*

*The **thing** that worries me most is the cost of the holiday.*

In speaking, we commonly use the phrase *the thing is*. We use it when we want to focus on something, or to indicate that there is a problem:

***The thing is** ... erm ... we do not have time to visit New York as well as Washington.*

*Yeah, that's OK, but **the thing is**, he still hasn't apologised for being late.*

Thing is an example of vague language. It allows speakers not to sound too direct. We often use *thing* in phrases such as *things like that*, *that kind of thing*:

*They're cooking lots of different Italian and Spanish dishes and **things like that**.*

*When I worked in a newspaper office, there wasn't time for eating lunch or **that kind of thing**, you know.*

We also use *thing* to show both positive (usually affectionate) and negative attitudes, mainly when accompanied by appropriate Adjectives:

*Our cat is too old now to leave the house, poor **thing**.*

*You lucky **thing**! I wish I had the chance to visit New Zealand.*

A: You are going to get paint on that dress. Why don't you get changed?

B: It doesn't matter. It's just an old **thing**.

STUFF

Stuff is one of the most common Nouns in speaking. It is more informal than *thing*. It is not at all common in writing.

Stuff is an uncountable Noun. We use *stuff* in similar ways to *thing*, especially in vague language phrases such as *stuff like that*:

*Where can we put our **stuff**? (our belongings) (very similar to, but more informal than, Where can we put our things?)*

*She did not have much advice to offer. She just told us to learn lots of new English vocabulary and **stuff like that**.*

KIND OF and SORT OF

Kind of and *sort of* are very common expressions in speaking. They soften other words and phrases so that they do not appear too direct or exact. **Kind of** is more common in American English. **Sort of** is more common in British English:

*He is **kind of** jealous that they have become such good friends.*

*I'm sorry but she's just **kind of** lost interest in buying the car.*

*They said it was a chalet but it was more like a **sort of** wooden hut.*

*She's spent the whole year **sort of** travelling around the world.*

SORT, TYPE and KIND

Sort, *type* and *kind* all generally mean the same thing. They are words we use to refer to a group of people or things which share the same characteristics. We use these words very often when we describe things and we often find them in dictionary definitions:

*Jazz isn't the **sort** of music I can listen to for very long.*

*A fastener is a **type** of metal button which fits together to join clothes, for example a coat might have fasteners.*

*There are many **kinds** of birds coming to feed in my garden at the moment.*

We often use *sort*, *type* and *kind* as vague expressions to suggest that we think something is like something else. We do this either because we are not sure, or because we do not want to be too specific and too direct:

[joking about a cheap perfume that someone got as a present] *And it was, it was really cheap, I mean, it was a **sort** of a rose perfume and I think the whole box only cost him one pound fifty, or something. You could probably run your car off it.*

We sometimes use *some* before *sort*, *type* and *kind* as vague expressions:

*Karen has made **some sort** of cake for the party.*

*There was **some type** of hole in the road and we didn't see it.*

*There's **some kind** of strange smell in here.*

We often use *and that kind of thing* or *and that sort of thing* to refer to categories. We usually give an example or two from the category we are referring to first, e.g. *apples and that kind of thing*, *bookshops and libraries and that sort of thing*.

A: What are you doing tonight?

B: Well, first, I have got lots of marking **and that sort of thing** to do.

A: Are you taking anything to eat?

B: Just a few snacks – crisps **and that kind of thing**.

Phrasal Verbs - Range of Meaning

Students ought to learn the *operators* right from the start of any lessons, and English teachers are strongly advised to teach *to get* and *to put* first. The verbs *to get* and *to put* are so extraordinary that we can call them *Magic Verbs*. I am aware of the fact that this kind of feature does not exist in Chinese. In Chinese, we always have to use the so-called "*proper verb*". Not so in English! Chinese learners, therefore, may experience serious difficulties in understanding texts containing such verbs and avoid attempting to use them themselves. To be frank, English speakers use these phrases *far more frequently* than proper verbs. This is one of the main reasons why many students fail to understand spoken English conversation!

Due to the influence of other languages during its over 1500 years' long history, English took on words from other languages and got therefore at least three to four times more words than, for instance, Chinese, which remained a *pure language* without *being influenced* heavily by other languages. As a consequence, English words often got narrowed in their meanings and the student is forced to learn a vast vocabulary. Make the students understand that learning how to use the Magic Verbs is not a burden but an incredible chance.

Particularly for beginners, it is vital to become *acquainted with* the operators *to get*, *to put* and the others. We commonly combine our *operators* with *Direction Words* (so-called Prepositions, Adverbs, Nouns or other Verbs) to form what is known as *Phrasal Verb*. The 8 most important Direction Words for this purpose are "*away, by, down, in, on, off, out, round, up*" So we can build examples like: *get up, put down, take on, give in, look up to, look down on*. By doing this we can multiply the number of the verb meaning dramatically.

With "*to get*" we express almost any *movement* and any *action* that leads *from one point to another* and *from one situation to another*, as well as the *reception* of a thing or living being, and any *development*. With "*to put*" we express the *placing, replacing* or *transport* of some- thing or someone. We do not need special words for all those actions, and above all, Magic Verbs can serve as an ideal "*gap filler*", particularly when you have no suitable verb in mind for a specific action.

How to begin to teach the Magic Verbs? By using the "Imperative" (Command Form) we can make the students understand quickly: *Get up!* or *Get down!*, for instance, meaning *Stand up!* and *Sit down!* *Put on the lights!* and *Put off the lights!* are other good examples which also can be shown in an alternative word order to make understand that English has more freedom in its word order than Chinese: *Put the lights on!* and *Put the lights off!*

(Attention: "to get" and "to put" cannot describe a "state of rest" or a "static situation" in itself but only the action that leads to such a situation! To describe a static situation we got to use "to be", "to stay" or "to remain", for example.)

Teachers can use a lot of sentences from school textbooks to practise. Just let the students *exchange* the proper verbs in them against a Magic Verb. It is easily done! Practise that again and again. In the following list you can see the 155 most common Magic Verbs (mainly arranged in pairs) that stand for about 2000 proper verbs:

"GET"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to get (also in any figurative sense)	to achieve, to acquire, to come by, to come in possession of, to inherit, to make, to net, to pick up, to procure, to realise, to reap, to win, to be afflicted with, to become infected with, to be smitten by, to come down with, to contract, to take, to arrest, to capture, to grab, to snatch, to lay hold of, to grow, to turn, to trap, to follow, to perceive, to see, to take in, to work out, to convince, to induce, to influence, to persuade, to prevail upon, to sway, to talk in, to receive, to earn, to become, to obtain, to attain, to provide, to fetch, to bring, to capture, to seize, to succeed, to come, to arrive, to leave, to manage, to contrive, to prepare, to hear, to notice, to understand, to comprehend, to catch, to enter, to reach, to begin.
to get about / around	to move around (as when recovering from an illness), to be socially active, to become known (of news or rumour)
to get across	1. to cross, to ford, to pass over, to traverse 2. to put over, to transmit, to bring home to, to make understand
to get ahead	1. to advance, to be successful, to do well, to flourish, to get on, to progress, to prosper, to thrive 2. to surpass, to excel, to outmanoeuvre, to overtake

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to get along	1. to cope, to develop, to manage, to get by, to progress, 2. to depart, to leave, to go, to go away 3. to be friendly, to agree, to harmonise, to be compatible, to hit it off
to get at	1. to acquire, to get access to, to reach 2. to hint, to imply, to mean, to intend, to suggest 3. to annoy, to attack, to blame, to pick on 4. to bribe, to corrupt, to irritate
to get away	to break free, to break out, to escape, to disappear, to flee, to leave
to get back	1. to retrieve, to retain, to recover 2. to arrive home, to return 3. to retaliate, to take vengeance on, to give tit for tat
to get by	1. to circumvent, to go around, to go past, to pass, to round, to overtake, to survive, to subsist 2. to manage, to cope, to fare, to get along
to get down	1. to alight, to bring down, to climb down, to dismount, to descend, to disembark, to get off, to lower 2. to depress, to dispirit, to dishearten
to get in	to alight, to appear, to come, to enter, to embark, to collect, to infiltrate, to insert, to land, to penetrate, to mount
to get off	to alight, to depart, to exit, to escape, to leave, to remove, to detach, to shed, to take off
to get on	1, to ascend, to embark, to board, to climb, to mount 2. to advance, to cope, to fare, to manage, to progress, to agree 3. to be friendly, to harmonise, to hit it off, to get along
to get out	to alight, to break out, to clear out, to decamp, to leave, to evacuate, to free oneself, to escape, to vacate, to withdraw
to get out of	to avoid, to dodge, to escape, to evade, to shirk
to get over	1. to cross, to ford, to get across, to pass, to pass over, to surmount, to traverse 2. to come round, to get better, to mend 3. to master, to overcome, to shake off, to defeat 4. to convey, to communicate, to make clear or understand, to impart, to get or put across
to get round	1. to bypass, to circumvent, to edge, to evade, to skirt, to outmanoeuvre 2. to coax, to convert, to persuade, to prevail upon, to talk round, to wheedle, to win over
to get together	to accumulate, to assemble, to collect, to congregate, to convene, to converge, to gather, to join, to meet, to muster, to rally, to unite

to get up	to arise, to ascend, to climb, to increase, to rise, to mount, to scale, to stand
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Here are some other useful expressions in which we use “to get” as an auxiliary verb: to get angry, to get bored, to get cold, to get chill, to get drunk, to get in involved in something, to get into trouble, to get pregnant, to get somebody pregnant, to get somebody to do something, to get somewhere, to get somebody to somewhere, to get something, to get asked, to get lost, to get something across, to get after somebody, to get along with someone, to get around a problem, to get at something, to get something down, to get down to, to get into, to get something off, to get on with, to get over something, to get through something, to get through to somebody, to get money together.

It is a matter of course that you can use “to get” in all its other forms as well, such as “getting” and “got” in order to say the same thing in other aspects or tenses.

The other magic verb “to put” can express the placing, replacing or transport of something or someone. Have a look at these “put”-samples:

“PUT”	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to put	to lay, to place, to position, to set, to rest, to settle, to fix, to establish, to bring, to deposit, to commit, to condemn, to consign, to doom, to enjoin, to impose, to inflict, to levy, to subject, to assign, to constrain, to force, to employ, to induce, to make, to oblige, to require, to express, to phrase, to pose, to state, to utter, to word, to advance, to bring forward, to forward, to offer, to posit, to present, to propose, to set before, to submit, to tender, to cast, to fling, to heave, to hurl, to lob, to pitch, to throw, to toss.
to put across or over	to communicate, to convey, to explain, to make clear, to make oneself understood, to spell out, to get across, to get through
to put aside or by	1. to deposit, to cache, to keep in reserve, to lay by, to save, to salt away, to squirrel away, to stockpile, to store, to stow away 2. to bury, to discount, to disregard, to forget, to ignore

to put away	1. to tidy away, to put back, to return to (its) place, to replace 2. to deposit, to keep, to lay in, to put by, to save, to set aside, to store away 3. to certify, to commit, to confine, to lock up, to institutionalise 4. to consume, to devour, to eat up, to gobble, to gulp down, to wolf down 5. to destroy, to do away with, to put down, to put to sleep, to put out of its misery
to put down	1. to write down, to inscribe, to record, to fill in, to enter, to take down, to log 2. to crush, to quash, to quell, to suppress, to stamp out 3. to destroy, to humiliate, to reject, to shame, to slight, to snub 4. to condemn, to dismiss, to do away with, to put out of its misery, to put to sleep, to put away
to put forward	to propose, to suggest, to nominate, to advance, to introduce, to move, to recommend, to present, to submit, to tender, to press
to put off	1. to switch off, to extinguish, to put back, to defer, to delay, to reschedule, to postpone, to confuse 2. to abash, to disconcert, to dismay, to distress, to perturb, to rattle, to perturb, to throw, to unsettle, to nonplus 3. to discourage, to dishearten, to dissuade
to put on	1. to switch on, to light, to dress, to get dressed in, to change into, to don, to slip into, to add, to gain, to increase by 2. to bet, to lay, to wager, to place 3. to do, to mount, to show, to present, to stage 4. to play-act, to pretend, to simulate, to sham 5. to affect, to assume, to fake, to feign, to make believe
to put out	1. to extinguish, to blow out, to stamp out, to snuff out, to quench, to smother 2. to disturb, to anger, to annoy, to confound, to exasperate, to harass, to irk, to irritate, to nettle, to perturb, to provoke, to vex 3. to trouble, to upset, to embarrass, to impose upon, to incommode 4. to bring out to broadcast, to circulate, to issue, to make known, to publish, to release
to put through	to send through, to connect, to carry through, to do, to accomplish, to achieve, to effect, to execute, to manage, to realise, to pull off
to put up	1. to build, to construct, to erect, to raise, to fabricate 2. to accommodate, to house, to board, to lodge, to give one lodge, to take in 3. to offer, to present, to put forward, to recommend, to submit 4. to advance, to give, to invest, to pay, to pledge, to provide, to supply

The pair “come” and “go”

If your students are advanced enough you can introduce more Magic Verbs. You will be surprised to hear that some other short verbs have the same magic qualities. Take simple verbs like *“to pull, to push, to turn, to go, to pop, to come, to run, to take, to give, to see, to set, to look, to make, to bring, to hold, to keep”*. and connect them with the direction words *“across, after, around, at, away, back, by, down, far, forward, in, left, near, off, on, out, over, right, round, to, together, under, up, upon”*. With these few verbs we can express the majority of daily actions

“COME”	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to come	to advance, to appear, to approach, to arrive, to become, to enter, to draw near, to happen, to move, to materialise, to move towards, to near, to occur, to originate, to show up, to turn up, to attain, to reach, to take place, to end up, to emerge, to arise, to emanate, to flow, to result, to turn out, to extend, to be available
to come about	to arise, to befall, to come to pass, to happen, to occur, to result, to take place
to come across	to bump into, to stumble upon, to happen upon, to light upon, to meet, to chance upon, to discover, to unearth, to notice
to come along	to develop, to improve, to mend, to progress, to pick up, to perk up, to rally, to recover, to recuperate
to come apart	to crumble, to unstuck, to disintegrate, to fall to pieces, to break, to give way, to separate, to split, to tear
to come at	1. to attain, to discover, to find, to grasp, to reach 2. to go for, to fly at, to fall upon, to rush at, to attack, to assail, to assault, to charge
to come back	to return, to reappear, to re-enter, to recur
to come between	to alienate, to divide, to estrange, to interfere, to meddle, to separate, to part, to set at odds
to come by	to get, to acquire, to obtain, to take possession of, to lay hold of, to win, to secure, to procure
to come clean	to acknowledge, to admit, to confess

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to come down	1. to decline, to descend, to degenerate, to deteriorate, to fall, to reduce, to go downhill, to worsen, to reduce 2. to choose, to decide, to favour, to recommend
to come down on	to criticise, to dress down, to jump on, to reprimand, to rebuke
to come down to	to amount to, to boil down to, to end up as, to result in
to come down with	to be stricken with, to fall ill, to catch, to contract, to fall victim to, to sicken, to take sick, to take
to come in	to appear, to arrive, to enter, to show up, to reach, to finish, to cross the threshold
to come in for	to acquire, to endure, to suffer, to receive, to bear the brunt of
to come off	to go off, to occur, to happen, to succeed, to take place, to transpire
to come on	1. to advance, to proceed, develop, to improve, to progress, to make headway 2. to begin, to appear, to take place
to come out	to be published (announced, released, issued), to appear
to come out with	to acknowledge, to declare, to come clean, to disclose, to lay open, to own, to own up, to say, to divulge
to come round	1. to visit, to call, to pop in, to stop by 2. to come to, to recover, to revive, to regain consciousness 3. to accede, to allow, to acquiesce, to concede, to grant, to relent, to yield
to come through	1. to accomplish, to achieve, to prevail, to succeed, to triumph 2. to endure, to survive, to withstand
to come up	to arise, to crop up, to happen, to occur, to rise, to spring up, to turn up
to come up with	to admit of comparison with, to approach, to compare with, to equal, to match, to measure up to, to meet, to resemble, to rival, to stand or bear comparison with

"GO"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to go	to advance, to depart, to decamp, to fare, to journey, to leave, to move, to walk, to run, to withdraw, to function, to work, to fit, to stretch, to spread, to develop, to happen, to proceed, to result, to match, to suit, to expire, to die, to pass away, to perish, to slip away, to attempt, to effort, to crack, to turn, to whack, to whirl, to drive
to go about	1. to circulate, to move around, to pass around, to wander 2. to approach, to begin, to tackle, to set about, to undertake 3. to busy or occupy oneself with
to go ahead	to continue, to proceed, to advance, to begin, to progress, to go forward, to go on
to go along	1. to accompany, to escort, to join, to carry on, to pass, to keep up, to move, to travel, 2. to follow, to concur, to acquiesce, to agree, to cooperate
to go at	to argue, to attack, to blame, to criticise
to go away	to depart, to decamp, to exit, to leave, to withdraw
to go back	1. to return, to revert 2. to change one's mind, to desert, to forsake, to retract, to renege
to go by	1. to elapse, to exceed, to flow on, to move onward, to pass, to proceed 2. to follow, to be guided by, to adopt, to heed, to observe, to judge from
to go down	1. to be beaten, to collapse, to decline, to decrease, to fall, to drop, to sink, to go under, to submerge, to suffer defeat 2. to be commemorated, to be remembered, to be recalled, to be recorded
to go far	to advance, to be successful, to do well, to get ahead, to get on, to progress, to succeed
to go for	to seek, to obtain, to clutch at, to reach, to stretch for, to be attracted to, to admire, to be fond of, to choose, to favour, to hold with, to like, to prefer, to assail, to assault, to attack, to launch oneself at, to rush upon, to spring upon, to set about or upon
to go in (for)	to adopt, to embrace, to engage in, to enter, to espouse, to practise, to pursue, to take up, to undertake

to go into	1. to begin, to enter, to participate in, to undertake 2. to analyse, to consider, to examine, to inquire into, to probe, to investigate, to look into, to study, to review, to pursue
to go off	1. to explode, to detonate, to blow up, to fire 2. to happen, to take place, to occur 3. to depart, to go away, to decamp, to leave, to move out, to quit, to part 4. to go bad, to rot, to go stale
to go on	1. to continue, to endure, to happen, to last, to occur, to persist, to proceed, to stay 2. to carry on, to blether, to chatter, to prattle, to ramble on, to waffle, to witter (on)
to go out	1. to leave, to depart, to exit 2. to be extinguished, to fade out, to die out, to expire
to go over	to examine, to inspect, to rehearse, to reiterate, to review, to revise, to study, to read, to scan
to go through	1. to bear, to endure, to brave, to suffer, to experience, to undergo, to withstand, to tolerate 2. to examine, to check, to explore, to search, to look, to hunt 3. to consume, to use, to exhaust, to squander
go together	1. to court, to date, to escort, to go out with 2. to agree, to accord, to harmonise, to match
to go under	to go down, to sink, to drown, to submerge, to fail, to fold
to go with	to accompany, to fit, to match, to suit, to blend, to complement, to correspond, to harmonise
to go without	to abstain, to be denied, to deprived of, to do without, to go short, to lack, to want

Pop

The verb "to pop" can cover the meanings of "to come" and "to go". It is frequently used when expressing any (sudden) movement

"POP"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to pop	to burst, to explode, to crack, to bang
to pop in	1. to appear, to call, to come suddenly, to come in, to visit, to drop in, to nip in 2. to put in, to place, to lay
to pop out	to go suddenly, to leave quickly, to exit, to nip out, to flee, to escape

The pair "give" and "take"

"GIVE"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to give	1. to hand over, to hand out, to deliver, to donate, to contribute, administer, to present, to grant, to allow, to award, to supply, to make over, to confer, to consign, to accord, to commit, to provide, to vouch-safe 2. to notify, to issue, to announce, to publish, to render, to transmit, to emit, to impart, to be a source of, to communicate, to utter 3. to show, to demonstrate, to evidence, to display, to indicate, to offer, to proffer, to provide, to set forth 4. to cause, to do, to make, to engender, to lead, to perform, to produce 5. to collapse, to fall, to break, to recede, to bend, to retire, to sink
to give away	to let slip, to let out, to leak, to disclose, to betray, to inform, to reveal, to uncover
to give in	to admit, to defeat, to capitulate, to collapse, to comply, to concede, to quit, to submit, to surrender, to yield
to give off	to discharge, to send out, to emit, to exhale, to release, to exude, to produce, to smell of, to throw out, to vent
to give out	1. to discharge, to send out, to emit, to exhale, to release, to exude, to produce, to smell of, to throw out, to vent 2. to notify, to issue, to announce, to publish, to render, to transmit, to emit, to impart, to be a source of, to communicate, to utter
to give up	to abandon, to capitulate, to cease, to cede, to cut out, to desist, to despair, to forswear, to hand over, to leave off, to quit, to relinquish, to renounce, to resign, to stop, to surrender, to throw in the towel, to waive

"TAKE"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to take	to gain possession of, to get hold of, to get, to have, to grip, to grasp, to obtain, to receive, to secure, to seize, to win, to carry off, to steal, to pinch, to nick, to pocket, to run off with, to help oneself to, to swipe, to

	walk off with, to abduct, to arrest, to acquire, to capture, to entrap, to clutch, to book, to hire, to lease, to engage, to rent, to buy, to purchase, to reserve, to select, to abide, to bear, to endure, to go through, to stand, to suffer, to swallow, to thole, to submit, to tolerate, to undergo, to withstand, to consume, to eat, to drink, to inhale, to accept, to adopt, to assume, to enter upon, to undertake, to do, to make, to perform, to execute, to believe, to assume, to consider, to deem, to hold, to interpret as, to presume, to see as, to think of as, to understand, to accompany, to bring, to conduct, to escort, to guide, to lead, to usher, to attract, to become popular, to captivate, to charm, to delight, to enchant, to fascinate, to please, to win favour, to require, to need, to accommodate, to contain, to have room for, to cheat, to deceive, to bilk, to swindle, to gull, to catch
to take back	1. to get back, to recapture, to reclaim, to reconquer, to repossess, to retake 2. to accept back, to exchange, to give one a refund for 3. to disclaim, to disavow, to renounce, to recant, to withdraw, to unsay
to take down	1. to make a note of, to put on record, to record, to set down, to write down, to transcribe, to minute 2. to demolish, to disassemble, to dismantle, to level, to raze, to tear down 3. to humiliate, to mortify, to humble, to deflate, to put down 4. to depress, to drop, to haul down, to let down, to pull down, to remove, to take off
to take in	1. to absorb, to assimilate, to comprehend, to digest, to grasp, to understand 2. to include, to contain, to comprise, to embrace, to cover, to encompass 3. to accommodate, to let in, to admit, to receive 4. to cheat, to deceive, to bilk, to dupe, to fool, to gull, to mislead, to swindle, to trick, to pull the wool over someone's eyes
to take off	1. to peel off, to remove, to discard, to divest oneself of, to strip off 2. to leave the ground, to become airborne, to lift off, to take to the air 3. to depart, to decamp, to beat it, to hit the road, to leave, to set out, to strike out
to take on	1. to employ, to engage, to enlist, to enrol, to hire, to retain 2. to acquire, to assume, to come to have

Bring

The verb "to bring" is closely related to the actions "to give" and "to take"

"BRING"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to bring	1. to carry, to bear, to convey, to fetch, to transfer, to conduct, to accompany, to deliver, to deliver, to gather, to escort, to guide, to usher 2. to cause, to contribute, to create, to engender, to inflict, to occasion, to produce, to result in, to wreak 3. to compel, to convince, to dispose, to force, to induce, to influence, to make, to move, to persuade, to prevail (up)on, to prompt, to sway 4. to command, to earn, to gross, to net, to produce, to return, to sell for, to yield
to bring about	to accomplish, to achieve, to bring to pass, to cause, to compass, to create, to effect, to effectuate, to generate, to give rise to, to make happen, to occasion, to produce, to realise
to bring down	to lower, to lay low, to cut down, to drop, to fell, to level, to floor, to overthrow, to overturn, to pull down, to reduce, to shoot down, to undermine, to upset
to bring in	to accrue, to bear, to be worth, to fetch, to gross, to produce, to profit, to realise, to return, to yield
to bring off	to accomplish, to achieve, to bring home the bacon, to bring to pass, to carry off, to carry out, to discharge, to execute, to perform, to pull off, to succeed
to bring up	1. to breed, to develop, to educate, to form, to nurture, to raise, to rear, to support, to teach, to train 2. to put forward, to mention, to advance, to propose, to submit, to introduce, to move

The pair "make" and "set"

Often "to make" and "to do" are considered a pair, due to their similar meanings. But they are not, because they have different meanings: The general meaning of "to do" is "to perform or complete a deed or action". The general meaning of "to make" is "to create or produce something". In fact, "to do" ceased to be a full verb, it is used to form the tenses as an auxiliary verb instead. Therefore "to do" takes on direction words only in these few examples: "to do away with" (to eliminate), "to do in" (to kill, to exhaust), "to do down" (to

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belittle, to humiliate, to deceive, to cheat), "to do for" (to convict of a crime, to cause the ruin, death or defeat of), "to do over" (to redecorate, to attack violently), and "to do up" (to wrap and make into a bundle: to do up a parcel, to cause the downfall of a person, to beautify or adorn, to fasten or be fastened, to renovate or redecorate, to assault)

"To make" and "to set" build an intellectual pair, they often appear together because a product that has been made needs often to be installed and adjusted "to be set up"

"MAKE"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to make	1. to assemble, to build, to compose, to constitute, to construct, to create, to fabricate, to fashion, to forge, to form, to frame, to manufacture, to mould, to originate, to produce, to put together, to shape, to synthesise 2. to accomplish, to beget, to bring about, to cause, to effect, to engender, to generate, to give rise to, to lead to, to occasion 3. to cause, to coerce, to compel, to constrain, to dragoon, to oblige, to press, to pressurise, to prevail upon, to require 4. to appoint, to assign, to designate, to elect, to install, to invest, to nominate, to ordain 5. to draw up, to enact, to establish, to fix, to frame, to pass 6. to add up to, to amount to, to compose, to embody, to represent 7. to act, to carry out, to do, to effect, to engage in, to execute, to perform, to practise, to prosecute 8. to calculate, to estimate, to gauge, judge, to reckon, to suppose, to think 9. to acquire, to clear, to earn, to gain, to get, to net, to obtain, to realise, to secure to take in, to win 10. to arrive at, to arrive in time for, to attain, to catch (up), to get to, to meet, to reach

to make as if or though	to pretend, to act as if or though, to affect, to feign, to feint, to give the impression that, to make a show of
to make away or off	1. to flee, to make off, to run away or off, to beat a hasty retreat, to abscond, to clear out, to cut and run, to depart, to decamp, to scoot, to skedaddle, to take to one's heels 2. to abduct with, to make off with, to carry off with, to knock off with, to filch, to kidnap, to nab with, to pinch, to steal

to make away (or do away with)	to get rid of, to eliminate, to discard, to destroy, to dispose of, to do away with, to do in, to kill, to murder
to make do	to get along, to get by, to cope, to manage, to muddle through, to scrape along, to scrape by
to make for	1. to aim, to be bound for, to head for, to head towards, to proceed towards, to steer (a course) for 2. to attack, to fall on, to go for, to fly at, to assail, to assault, to have a go at, to lunge at, to set upon 3. to contribute to, to promote, to be conducive to, to conduce to, to facilitate
to make out	1. to see, to discover, to recognise, to perceive, to discover, to distinguish, to espy 2. to understand, to comprehend, to grasp, to decipher, to follow, to work out 3. to complete, to draw up, to fill in or out, to inscribe, to write (out) 4. to show, to demonstrate, to describe, to prove, to represent 5. to pretend, to make as if or though, to claim, to let on, to assert 6. to thrive, to get on, to fare, to manage, to succeed, to prosper
to make up	1. to form, to compose, to construct, to fabricate, to write, to invent, to comprise, formulate, to constitute, to create, to to cook up, to dream up, to frame, to hatch, to trump up 2. to complete, to fill, to meet, to supply 3. to make peace, to come to terms, to reconcile, to forgive and forget, to shake hands, to settle, to call it quits

"SET"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to set	1. to aim, to apply, to deposit, to direct, to embed, to fasten, to fix, to install, to lay, to locate, to lodge, to mount, to park, to place, to plant, to plonk, to plump, to position, to put, to rest, to seat, to situate, to station, to stick, to turn 2. to agree upon, to allocate, to appoint, to arrange, to assign, to conclude, to decide (upon), to designate, to determine, to establish, to fix up, to name, to ordain, to regulate, to resolve, to schedule, to settle, to specify 3. to adjust, to coordinate, to rectify, to regulate, to synchronise

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to set about	to address oneself to, to begin, to get cracking, to get down to, to get to work, to get weaving, to make a start on, to tackle, to take the first step 2. to assail, to attack, to belabour, to lambaste, to sail into
to set against	1. to balance, to compare, to contrast, to juxtapose, to weigh 2. to alienate, to disunite, to divide, to drive a wedge between, to estrange, to make bad blood, to make mischief, to oppose, to set at odds
to set aside	1. to keep, to keep back, to put on one side, to reserve, to save, to select, to separate, to set apart, to single out 2. to abrogate, to annul, to cancel, to discard, to dismiss, to nullify, to overrule, to overturn, to quash, to reject, to render null and void, to repudiate, to reverse
to set back	to delay, to hinder, to hold up, to impede, to retard, to slow
to set off	1. to depart, to embark, to leave, to sally forth, to set out, to start out 2. to explode, to detonate, to ignite, to light, to touch off, to set in motion
to set on	to assail, to assault, to attack, to fall upon, to fly at, to go for, to incite, to instigate, to let fly at, to pitch into, to pounce on, to sail into, to set about, to spur on, to urge
to set out	1. to arrange, to array, to describe, to detail, to display, to dispose, to elaborate, to elucidate, to exhibit, to explain, to expose to view, to lay out, to present, to set forth 2. to begin, to embark, to get under way, to hit the road, to sally forth, to set off, to start on, to take to the road
to set up	1. to arrange, to begin, to compose, to establish, to found, to initiate, to install, to institute, to make provision for, to organise, to prearrange, to prepare 2. to back, to build up, to finance, to promote, to strengthen, to subsidise
to set upon	to ambush, to assail, to assault, to attack, to beat up, to fall upon, to go for, to lay into, to mug, to set about, to turn on

The pair "hold" and "keep"

The verbs "to hold" and "to keep" are often considered similar and therefore exchangeable. Be careful: When expressing straight actions, they have exact opposite meanings as in "hold on!" (stop) - "keep on!" (continue)

"HOLD"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to hold	1. to keep, to have, to own, to possess, to occupy, to retain 2. to grip, to clasp, to stick, to adhere, to clinch, to cling, to clutch, to cradle, to cleave, to grasp 3. to arrest, to bind, to check, to confine, to curb, to detain, to imprison, to restrain, to stay, to stop, to suspend 4. to assume, to believe, to consider, to deem, to entertain, to esteem, to judge, to maintain, to presume, reckon, to regard, to think, to view 5. to continue, to endure, to last, to persevere, to persist, to remain, to resist, to wear 6. to assemble, to call, to carry on, to celebrate, to conduct, to convene, to have, to officiate at, to preside over, to run, to solemnise 7. to bear, to brace, to shoulder, to sustain, to take 8. to accomodate, to comprise, to contain, to have a capacity for, to seat 9. to be in force, to stand up, to apply, to remain true, to remain valid
to hold back	1. to desist, to keep back, to withhold, to refuse, to forbear 2. to check, to control, to curb, to repress, to restrain, to suppress
to hold forth	to speak, to preach, to orate, to lecture, to discourse, to declaim, to decant, to speechify
to hold in	1. to curb, to control, to keep in check 2. to conceal
to hold off	1. to avoid, to defer, to delay, to keep from, to postpone, to put off, to refrain 2. to fend off, to keep off, to rebuff, to repel, to repulse, to stave off
to hold on	1. to maintain a firm grasp 2. to continue, to persist 3. to keep to, to retain to 4. to keep a telephone line open 5. Stop! Halt! Wait!
to hold out	1. to carry on, to continue, to endure, to hang on, to last, to persevere, to persist, to stand fast, to withstand 2. to extend, to give, to offer, to present, to proffer
to hold over	to adjourn, to defer, to delay, to postpone, to put off, to suspend, to waive
to hold up	1. to hinder, to delay, to detain, to set back, to slow down, to stop 2. to brace, to buttress, to jack up, to prop, to shore up, to support, to sustain 3. to mug, to rob, to stick up, to waylay 4. to display, to exhibit, to flaunt, to present, to show 5. to bear up, to endure, to last, to survive, to wear

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to hold with	to agree, to agree with, to approve of, to be in favour of, to countenance, to subscribe to, to support, to take kindly to
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"KEEP"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to keep	1. to conserve, to preserve, to maintain, to retain, to hold 2. to deposit, to place, to pile, to amass, to accumulate, to furnish, to garner, to stack, to stock, to store, to trade in 3. to care for, to defend, to guard, to look after, to manage, to mind, to operate, to protect, to safeguard, to shelter, to shield, to tend, to watch over 4. to board, to feed, to foster, to nourish, to nurture, to provide for, support, to sustain 5. to accompany, to associate with, to consort with, to fraternise with 6. to arrest, to block, to check, to constrain, to control, to curb, to delay, to detain, to deter, to hamper, to hamstring, to hinder, to hold back, to keep back, to limit, to obstruct, to prevent, to restrain, to retard, to shackle, to stall, to withhold 7. to adhere to, to celebrate, to commemorate, to comply with, to fulfil, to honour, to obey, to observe, to perform, to respect, to ritualise, to solemnise
to keep at	to steadfast, to carry on, to complete, to continue, to drudge, to endure, to finish, to grind, to labour, to last, to maintain, to persevere, to persist, to remain, to slave, to stay, to stick, to toil
to keep back	1. to check, to constrain, to control, to curb, to delay, to detain, to deter, to hamper, to hamstring, to hinder, to hold back, to limit, to prohibit, to restrain, to retard, to withhold 2. to censor, to conceal, to hide, to reserve, to suppress, to withhold
to keep on	to carry on, to continue, to endure, to last, to persevere, to persist, to prolong, to remain
to keep up	to balance, to compete, to contend, to continue, to emulate, to keep pace, to maintain, to match, to persevere, to preserve, to rival, to sustain, to vie

The pair "pull" and "push"

Another interesting pair is "to pull" and "to push", expressing quite opposing kinds of movement:

"PULL"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to pull	1. to drag, to draw, to haul, to jerk, to tow, to trail, to tug, to yank 2. to cull, to extract, to gather, to pick, to pluck, to remove, to take out, to uproot, to weed 3. to dislocate, to stretch 4. to magnetise, to attract, to lure
to pull apart	to criticise, to attack, to pull to pieces, to find fault
to pull down	to demolish, to destroy, to bulldoze, to remove, to raze
to pull in	1. to drive aside, to arrive, to come in, to draw in, to reach, to bring in 2. to attract, to bring in 3. to arrest, to bust, to clear, to earn, to gain, to gross, to make, to pocket, to take home
to pull off	1. to detach, to doff, to remove, to rip off, to tear off, to wrench off 2. to accomplish, to bring off, to carry out, to manage, to succeed
to pull out	to drive out, to depart, to leave, to evacuate, to quit, to rat on, to retreat, to withdraw, to stop participating
to pull through	to draw through, to come through, to get better, to get over, to pull round, to rally, to recover, to survive
to pull up	to dig out, to lift, to raise, to uproot, to brake, to halt, to reach a standstill, to stop, to tell off

"PUSH"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to push	1. to press, to poke, to depress, to drive, to propel, to ram, to shove, to thrust 2. to elbow, to make or force one's way, to move, to squeeze 3. to egg on, to hurry, to speed, to spur, to urge, to boost 4. to advertise, to promote, to make known, to plug 5. to advance, to assault, to attack
to push off	to go away, to get lost, to depart, to hit the road, to leave, to make oneself scarce, to shove off, to take off

Turn

"TURN"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to turn	1. to move in a circle, to circle, to go round, to revolve, to roll, to spin, to twirl, to swivel, to wheel, to whirl, to circuit, to stroll, to walk 2. to change course, to change position, to go back, to return 3. to shift, to

	switch 4. to pass around, to take a bend 5. to alter, to adapt, to shape, to cast, to form, to transform 6. to go bad, to go sour, to spoil 7. to appeal, to apply, to approach
to turn down	1. to diminish, to lessen, to lower, to mute, to reduce the volume of 2. to decline, to say no to, to throw out
to turn in	1. to go to bed, to go to sleep, to retire for the night 2. to give up, to deliver, to hand in, to surrender
to turn off	1. to switch off, to shut down, to stop, to leave, to quit, to take a side road, to cut out, to put out, to kill, to turn out, to unplug 2. to displease, to disgust, to sicken, to irritate
to turn on	1. to switch on, to activate, to energise, to ignite, to put on, to set in motion, to start, to start up 2. to be decided by, to be contingent on 3. to assail, to assault, to attack, to lose one's temper with 4. to arouse one's desire, to attract, to thrill, to stimulate
to turn out	1. to switch off, to put out, to turn off, to unplug 2. to banish, to deport, to dismiss, to dispossess, to drive out, to drum out, to expel, to fire, to sack, to throw out, to kick out 3. to bring out, to fabricate, to make, to finish, to manufacture, to process, to produce, to put out 4. to come to be, to develop, to happen, to end up
to turn over	1. to capsize, to flip over, to keel over, to overturn, to tip over, to reverse, to upend, to upset 2. to think over, to think about, to wonder about, to reflect on 3. to give over, to give up, to hand over, to break up 4. to activate, to set in motion, to switch on, to switch on the ignition, to start up
to turn up	1. to come, to arrive, to appear, to attend, to show, to show up, to show one's face 2. to become known, to bring to light, to come to pass, to come up with, to dig up, to discover, to disclose, to pop up, to find, to reveal 3. to amplify, to enhance, to increase the volume of, to intensify, to make louder

Look

"LOOK"	Meaning and / or alternative expression
to look	1. to behold, to glance, to peep, to watch, to observe, to eye, to scan, to see, to gaze, to examine, to regard, to study, to view, to inspect, to scrutinise 2. to appear, to display, to evidence, to exhibit, to make clear, to present, to seem, to show 3. to face, to front, to front on, to overlook 4. to anticipate, to await, to expect, to hope, to reckon on 5. to forage, to hunt, to search, to seek 6. to gape, to gawk, to glower, to goggle, to ogle, to stare
to look after	to care for, to keep an eye on, to supervise, to attend to, to watch, to mind, to nurse, to protect, to sit with, to tend, to take charge
to look down on or upon	to despise, to disdain, to contemn, to hold in contempt, to misprize, to scorn, to sneer, to spurn
to look into	to examine, to check out, to explore, to go into, to inspect, to follow up, to investigate, to look over, to inquire about, to research, to scrutinise, to probe, to make inquiries
to look out	to beware, to be alert, to be careful, to be on guard, to pay attention, to watch out, to be vigilant, to keep an eye out
to look over	to check, to examine, to cast an eye over, to inspect, to look through, to monitor, to scan, to view, to flick through
to look up	1. to find, to hunt for, to research, to search for, to seek out, to track down 2. to ameliorate, to come along, to get better, to improve, to perk up, to pick up, to progress, to shape up, to show improvement 3. to respect, to revere, to admire, to esteem, to defer, to honour, to regard highly 4. to visit, to call (on), to drop in on, to go to see, to look in on, to pay a visit to

PHRASAL VERBS WITH EXAMPLES

accede to: She would not **accede to** parental pressure to get married. (To agree to do something)

account for: Increasing disappearance of icebergs in the Arctic is **accounted for** by global warming. (To provide explanation for)

agree to: She **agreed to** meet me only after I've apologised to her. (To consent)

agree with: I don't like you but I **agree** entirely **with** what you have said. (To think the same)

amount to: His decision **amounts to** an outright refusal. (To be the same as)

answer back: He was told off for **answering** her **back**. (To react rudely)

answer for: David will have to **answer for** his impoliteness. (To be responsible for something wrong that one did)

attribute to: He **attributed** his success **to** his wife's constant encouragement. (To say something is caused by someone or something else)

back away: He **backed away** when challenged to a fight. (To move away; to withdraw)

back down: The government **backed down** over the issue after widespread protests. (To withdraw from a commitment)

back off: They told him to **back off** after he put too much pressure on them. (To retreat)

back out: We were shocked when he **backed out** of the project at the last minute. (To withdraw from doing something or before it is completed)

back up: The witnesses **backed up** his account of the incident. (To confirm what someone says is true)

blow away: They threatened to **blow** the hostages **away** if the soldiers attempted a rescue mission. (To kill by shooting with a gun)

blow out: One of our tyres **blew out** while we were on our way to catch a train. (To burst)

blow over: We waited until the storm **blew over** before continuing our journey. (To become weaker)

blow up: A suicide bomber **blew up** a van carrying soldiers. (To explode; to destroy by explosion of a bomb)

boil away: I overslept and the water **boiled away** leaving the kettle intensely hot. (To heat until liquid disappears)

boil down to: What his endless arguments **boil down to** is that he wants others to believe him. (To be the main reason or equivalent of)

boil over: The discussion **boiled over** into a shouting match. (To lose control of one's

temper)

break away: The leading runner **broke away** from the pack on the final lap. (To move from or ahead of a group)

break down: After ten years, their marriage **broke down** irretrievably leading to a divorce. (To fail owing to some reason)

break in: He was arrested for trying to **break in** through the window of a house. (To enter a building forcibly or illegally)

break into: They **broke into** a research laboratory and removed all the animals. (To forcibly enter a building to steal)

break of: She found it hard to **break** herself **of** biting nails. (To make someone give up a habit)

break off: Jack **broke off** with Jill after only three months. (To discontinue a relationship)

break out: A plan by some prisoners to **break out** of the prison was foiled by the prison guards. (To escape from a place such as a prison)

break through: The crowd managed to **break through** the police cordon. (To force oneself through an obstruction)

break up: The police used tear gas to **break up** the protest demonstration. (To disperse a crowd)

break up: The house-warming party **broke up** around midnight. (To come to an end)

bring about: Global warming will **bring about** changes in man's attitude towards the environment. (To cause something to happen)

bring around/round: They were trying to **bring** him **around** by giving him mouth-to-mouth resuscitation. (To make someone regain consciousness)

bring back: More and more people are advocating that the death penalty be **brought back**. (To reuse something)

bring down: Corruption and bribery scandals had **brought down** the government. (To cause to collapse)

bring forth: A quarrel about money that **brought forth** tragic deaths. (To produce)

bring forward: The matches have been **brought forward** to avoid the bad weather. (To make something happen earlier)

bring in: The police had to be **brought in** to settle a seemingly private dispute. (To invite someone for a purpose)

bring on/upon: There are people who **bring** misfortune **upon** themselves. (To make something happen)

bring out: Disasters **bring out** the best in human nature when many volunteer in rescue operations. (To make a good quality noticeable)

bring together: What **brought** them **together** is their common interests. (To make people come into close association)

bring up: The divorcee **brought up** her six children single-handedly. (To care and educate a child)

brush aside: He **brushed** their suggestions **aside**, saying they are not practical. (To be unwilling to consider something)

brush off: The film star **brushed off** a rumour of his impending divorce. (To refuse to give one's attention to something)

brush up: I must **brush up** on my driving before I get a car. (To resume practising a skill)

burn away: Fire **burnt away** the building leaving only the pillars standing. (To be destroyed by fire)

burn down: By the time the firemen arrived, the fire had **burnt** the houses **down**. (To be destroyed by fire)

burn out: The fire was too huge to be extinguished and had to be left to **burn** itself **out**. (To stop burning as there's nothing left to burn)

burn up: The forest fire **burnt up** vast tracts of woodland. (To be destroyed completely by fire)

buy into: That's your personal belief; I'm not **buying into** it. (To believe wholeheartedly in something)

buy off: The accused man's father tried to **buy** the judge **off** but was arrested. (To bribe)

buy out: He **bought out** some shareholders and now he has a controlling interest in the business. (To purchase stock, etc in order to gain complete control of a company, etc.)

buy up: The dealer **bought up** a huge quantity of a scarce commodity in anticipation of its price increase. (To purchase all that is available of something)

call back: I have already called her ten times and she hasn't **called back**. (To return a telephone call)

call for: The people are **calling for** a change of government. (To demand)

call in: They tried to settle the matter without **calling in** the police. (To telephone someone at a particular place)

call off: The couple **called off** their engagement by mutual consent. (To postpone or cancel)

call on: She's never in when I **called on** her. (To make a brief visit)

call up: That was the first time he was **called up** to play for the national team. (To select, e.g. as a player)

carry on: When the rain started to fall, we **carried on** playing football as if nothing happened. (To continue doing something)

carry out: She got into trouble for not **carrying out** her assignment. (To do or complete something)

carry over: Leave not used up may be **carried over** into next year. (To bring something forward)

catch on: He became popular when his new song **caught on** very fast. (To become popular)

catch up: Having been ill for the last few days, I now have got to **catch up** on my studying. (To reach same standard as others)

catch up with: After all these years the law finally **caught up with** him. (To finally discover someone had done wrong and punish them)

clean out: They have to **clean out** the attic before they move out. (To remove dirt, rubbish, etc from a place)

clean up: The group of volunteers gathered to **clean up** the beach. (To make a place free from dirt, stains, rubbish, etc)

clear away: The children quickly **cleared away** all their toys before mum reached home. (To remove unwanted things or put them back to where they belong so that the place becomes tidy)

clear off: They **cleared off** from chatting in the canteen when the boss entered. (To leave quickly)

clear out: It's time to **clear** your bedroom **out**; it's cluttered up with piles of books and magazines. (To make a place tidy by getting rid of unwanted things)

clear up: The weather **cleared up** and we went for a drive along the coast. (To improve, especially weather)

close down: The factory was forced to **close down** by falling demand for its products. (To cease operation such as a business, shop, etc)

close in: The police are **closing in** on the gang's hideout. (To move in on a target and prevent its escape)

close off: Two lanes were **closed off** for roadwork. (To not allow access)

close out: The store is **closing out** a particular brand of shoes. (To dispose of something cheaply)

close up: The supermarket is **closed up** for renovation. (To not open for the time during which something is being done)

come about: How did it **come about** that we didn't meet when we're both there at the same time? (To happen)

come across: I **came across** a life-size bronze statue of a horse in an antique shop. (To meet or find by chance)

come along: I wanted to go to the cinema but nobody wanted to **come along** with me. (To go somewhere with)

come apart: My glasses **came apart** when I accidentally dropped them. (To separate into pieces)

come around: He **came around** after I showed him all the evidence. (To change one's opinion)

come at: I dreamed he **came at** me with a dagger and demanded my wallet. (To rush threateningly at someone)

come back: He **comes back** from five-nil down to level at seven-all. (To regain success after setback)

come before: She said her children would always **come before** her career. (To be more important)

come between: He doesn't allow anything, not even his wife, to **come between** him and his work. (To cause conflict between two persons)

come by: Plum jobs are hard to **come by** these days. (To find something that is difficult to get)

come down: They are **coming down** from Iceland this weekend. (To travel south)

come down on: Her parents really **came down** hard **on** her for playing truant. (To punish)

come down to: When it **comes down to** her political beliefs, she is not prepared to compromise. (To be the most important factor)

come down with: He just **came down with** a cold, so we have to postpone the trip. (To suffer something infectious, though not serious)

come for: You had better hide; they are **coming for** you. (To arrive so as to get something or someone)

come forward: Despite the high reward offered, no one has **come forward** with any information. (To volunteer to provide information)

come from: He **comes from** a long line of actors. (To have started from)

come in: These small tools **come in** handy when we need them. (To be useful when needed)

come of: His persistent cough **comes of** smoking heavily. (To happen because of something)

come off: Despite all our efforts, the social gathering did not **come off** very well. (To take place or occur)

come out: The truth of the matter will **come out** sooner or later. (To become known)

come out of: The police combed the entire area for evidence, but nothing **came out of** it. (To result from something)

come out with: He **came out with** his own interpretation which is not entirely accurate. (To say something that is unexpected)

come over: If you **come over** next week, we can do it together. (To make a casual visit)

come round: I expected you to **come round** for the drinking session, but you didn't. (To visit someone at home)

come to: She **came to** about an hour after he was admitted to the hospital. (To regain consciousness)

come through: Her anger **came through** in her facial expression. (To become clear or obvious)

come under: The politician **came under** widespread criticism for what he proposed. (To experience or suffer)

come up: A stranger **came up** to me and asked for the way to the museum. (To move towards)

come up against: In parliament, he had to **come up against** experienced opposition members. (To deal with)

come up for: The proposal will **come up for** revision next week. (To be dealt with in the future)

come up with: They intend to **come up with** a solution soon. (To think of a plan for something)

come up with: We welcome anybody who can **come up with** an alternative plan. (To think of an idea)

come upon: We **came upon** a headless corpse when we stepped into a disused mine. (To discover by chance)

come upon: The police finally **came upon** the spot where the murder supposedly took place. (To find what one has been looking for)

count down: We like to join in when they **count down** before the launch of a rocket. (To call out numbers in descending order to zero)

count in: If you are having a drinking session this evening, you can **count me in**. (To include someone)

count on: You can **count on** my help whenever you need it. (To depend)

count out: If you are going on a shopping spree this weekend, **count me out**. (To not include someone)

cross off: As you perform each task, **cross it off** the list. (To remove an item from a list by drawing a line through it)

cross out: When you make a mistake, **cross it out**. (To draw a line through something that is written wrongly)

cut across: We'd better **cut across** the park and get home before it rains. (To take a shorter route than an alternative longer one)

cut away: We spend the whole afternoon **cutting away** the dead branches. (To remove unwanted parts)

cut back: Businesses are **cutting back** on staff to remain profitable. (To reduce)

cut down: You ought to **cut down** on the number of cigarettes you smoke. (To reduce the quantity)

cut in: His annoying habit is to **cut in** whenever a conversation is going on. (To interrupt)

cut in: The stupid driver suddenly **cut in** right in front of us. (To suddenly drive into the space front of another car)

cut off: He tried to explain but they **cut him off** and warned him not to be late again. (To stop someone from continuing talking by interrupt them)

cut out: Can you fellows **cut it out**? I'm trying to read. (To tell someone to stop doing something)

cut up: The murderer **cut up** the victim's body into eight pieces. (To cut into pieces)

dawn on: The truth finally **dawned on** him that she really meant what she said. (To begin to become known or obvious)

deal in: My uncle's shop **deals in** genuine antiques. (To trade in something)

deal with: They seem unable to **deal with** the long-standing problem. (To take action to solve a problem)

decide on: Have you **decided on** the dress you will be wearing for the occasion? (To make up one's mind about something)

delight in: Jack **delights in** telling stories about his days in the army. (To get great pleasure out of something)

depend on/upon: Their future **depends on** their hard work, and not on their teachers. (To need something in order to continue doing what one wants to do)

die away: I could only sleep after the noise caused by thunderstorm **died away**. (To become lesser until it disappears)

die down: The storm has **died down** and the sea become calmer. (To subside)

die off: A few plant species are **dying off** in that areadue to the change in climate. (To decline in population)

die out: The old French custom of serving the vegetables separate from the meat has **died out**. (To become extinct)

do away with: My wife wants me to **do away with** my vast collection of old magazines. (To get rid of)

do away with: The gang threatened to **do away with** his entire family if he stood for the election. (To kill)

do for: Employing a temporary worker will **do for** the time being. (To provide for)

do in: Painting the house really **did me in**. (To tire out completely)

do in: It is believed a hired killer **did his boss in**. (To kill)

do out: We need to **do out** the room before we can rent it out. (To clean or tidy out)

do out of: She was **done out of** \$100 by a door-to-door salesman this morning. (To cheat)

do over: The report contains errors and the boss wants him to **do it over**. (To do again or differntly)

do up: He bought an old car and **did it up**. (To make improvement through repairing or redecoration)

do up: She looks more beautiful when she **did her hair up**. (To do something to make oneself more attractive)

do up: He **did** the birthday present **up** in coloured shiny paper for her. (To wrap something)

do up: Can you **do up** the zip at her back? (To fasten)

do with: With this warm weather, I could **do with** a cold drink. (To require something)

do without: Our boat was adrift and we had to **do without** solid food for two days. (To manage without something)

do without: I wish she would keep quiet; I can **do without** all this grumbling. (To prefer not to have something)

draw away: After the third lap, the leading runner **drew away** from the pack. (To move further ahead)

draw in: The quarrel is between you two; don't **draw me in**. (To get involved)

draw into: Some of these kids get **drawn into** drug addiction by their peers. (To involve someone)

draw off: If you want some beer, you can **draw off** some from that barrel. (To take off a small amount from a larger supply)

draw on: Luckily I have a savings to **draw on** to buy her a present. (To make use of)

draw out: We don't know why she **drew out** a large amount of money from her account. (To take money out of an account)

draw up: Thinking he's going to die soon, he **drew up** a will. (To draft a legal document)

draw up: The taxi **drew up** in front of me. (To come to a stop)

draw up: The party leader **drew up** a list of candidates for the forthcoming election. (To prepare a list)

dream away: At times, I couldn't help but **dream away** the hours. (To pass time idly thinking of something)

dream of: He told me he had always **dreamed of** striking the first prize of the lottery. (To pass time idly thinking of something)

dream on: When I asked if she's going to help me with the cooking, she told me to **dream on**. (To tell someone what they wish for is improbable or unrealistic)

dream up: The professor **dreamt up** the possibility of a robot thinking like human being. (To invent mentally)

drive at: He didn't say exactly what he meant, but I knew what he was **driving at**. (To know what someone means)

drive away: His bossiness has **driven** his friends **away**. (To behave in a way that forces people to stay away)

drive off: He was probably angry when without a word, he just got into his car and **drove off**. (To leave in a car)

drive out: The new supermarket has **driven out** small retail shops from the area. (To force someone or something to leave)

drive up: The rise in oil price **drives up** other prices. (To force other things to go up)

drop behind: She **dropped behind** in her schoolwork during her illness. (To fall behind)

drop by: They **dropped by** their grandparents every weekend. (To visit someone for a short time)

drop in: He always **drops in** for a chat without prior notice. (To stop in for a short visit)

drop off: Sales usually **drop off** at this time of the year. (To decrease)

drop off: After listening to the speech for five minutes, I was **dropping off**. (To begin to fall asleep)

drop off: He **dropped us off** at the post office. (To drive someone to a particular place)

drop out: He shouldn't have **dropped out** of school, but he did. (To withdraw before completing it)

drop out: After three laps, he had to **drop out** because of injury. (To leave before finishing something)

dry off: We lay on the beach to **dry off** after a swim. (To make or become dry)

dry out: Our washing **dried out** very quickly in this hot weather. (To make something completely dry)

dry up: The prolonged drought had caused all the rivers to **dry up**. (To have no more water)

eat away: Termites have **eaten away** much of the woodwork on the outside of the empty house. (To gradually reduce or damage something)

eat in: I am cooking tonight so we are **eating in**. (To have a meal at home)

eat into: The high bills are **eating into** my savings. (To decrease the amount of something)

eat out: It's your birthday; let's **eat out** and celebrate tonight. (To not eat at home but somewhere else such as a restaurant)

eat up: Who **ate up** all my potato chips? (To eat all of something)

egg on: The boys didn't want to fight but their friends kept **egging** them **on**. (To encourage or to incite to action)

end in: Their argument **ended in** a fist fight. (To finish in a particular way)

end up: The driver took a wrong road and we **ended up** somewhere else. (To land up in an unwelcome situation or place)

endear to: Her friendly attitude **endeared** her **to** everybody she met at the social gathering. (To make someone beloved)

face up to: He has to **face up to** the fact that he has to study hard to pass the exam. (To accept and deal with an unpleasant situation)

face with: The scientist was **faced with** many unknown factors. (To have to deal with)

fall about: When the plump lady started dancing, the kids **fell about** laughing. (To laugh uncontrollably)

fall apart: The wooden bridge that has fallen into disuse is **falling apart**. (To break down into pieces)

fall apart: His world **fell apart** when his wife left him. (To suffer serious emotional problems)

fall away: At the back of the castle, the land **falls away** to lush green pastures. (To slope downwards)

fall away: The storm caused some of the tiles to **fall away** from the roof. (To break off and drop to the ground)

fall back: The soldiers had to **fall back** as they came under attack. (To move back)

fall back on: She has her big savings to **fall back on** if need be. (To rely on something when confronted with a difficult situation)

fall behind: I'd better hide the car as I have **fallen behind** in my payments. (To fail to keep up with payments)

fall down: He stumbled and **fell down** the stairs. (To fall to the ground)

fall for: He couldn't help always **falling for** women in uniforms. (To feel love for)

fall for: I **fell for** it when she told me she was unmarried. (To deceive into believing)

fall in: Poor construction caused the roof and ceiling **fall in** after a year. (To drop or collapse inwards)

fall in: The soldiers **fell in** line before the commanding officer. (To move into neat lines in military formation)

fall in with: They appeared willing to **fall in with** the leader's suggestions. (To accept and not disagree)

fall in with: While on a cruise, the couple **fell in with** a group of other passengers. (To become friendly with someone)

fall into: She **fell into** the habit of talking to herself. (To start doing something without any intention)

fall into: He **fell into** an argument with a stranger about queue-jumping. (To get involved in something without intending to)

fall into: Since he bought a new bike, his bicycle has **fallen into** a poor condition due to neglect. (To become progressively worse in condition due to not being taken care of)

fall off: Business along the main road **fell off** after a series of public demonstrations. (To decrease)

fall off: Specks of paint have been **falling off** the wall at the back of the house. (To come apart from the main part)

fall on: In his new job, the responsibility for machine maintenance **falls on** him. (To make someone assume a responsibility or duty)

fall on: Suspicion **fell on** the butler that he might have murdered the female servant. (To suspect someone of wrong doing)

fall on/upon: The rebels **fell on/upon** a group of soldiers and held them hostage. (To launch a sudden attack)

fall out: Sarah **fell out** with her boyfriend after knowing her for only two months. (To have a quarrel)

fall out: His hair started **falling out** after he contracted an unknown illness. (To come out)

fall over: Bob stepped on a banana skin and **fell over**. (To fall onto the ground)

fall over: They built a tall sandcastle and it **fell over**. (To fall onto its side)

fall through: The deal **fell through** and they agreed to renegotiate. (To fail)

fall to: It **fell to** the eldest son to manage the family business after the death of their father. (To give someone responsibility for something)

fill in: We found someone to **fill in** for Sarah when she was away on medical leave. (To serve in place of another person)

fill in: The students were asked to **fill in** a questionnaire on the environment. (To gather information)

fill out: We had to **fill out** the job application forms and hand them in as soon as possible. (To provide information as required by completing something such as a form)

fill up: The stadium was **filling up** with spectators as the start of the match drew closer. (To become more and more full with people or things)

fit in: The new member has learned quickly to **fit in** with the others. (To feel accepted or belonged to a group)

fit out: The entire building was **fitted out** with air conditioners but they were not working. (To provide with things that are needed such as equipment, etc)

fit up: We decided to work from home and had the attic **fitted up** as the office. (To equip a room or building for a particular purpose)

fit up: His family and friends believed he had been **fitted up** for the crime. (To make an innocent person seem guilty)

fix on: They have finally **fixed on** a venue for the fund-raising event. (To pick out as being the best place for a planned purpose)

fix up: We have to **fix** the spare room **up** for our guests. (To renovate and redecorate)

fix up: Their friend has **fixed up** a time and place for them to resolve their differences. (To arrange a meeting, etc)

fix up: He was happy that his friends had **fixed him up** with a pretty girl. (To provide a romantic partner)

fix up: They are **fixing us up** with a reasonably priced hotel to stay. (To provide something to someone)

follow along: Whenever I listen to that song, I couldn't help **following along** with it. (To do or move at the same time as something else)

follow around: Quit **following me around**, will you? (To keep following someone)

follow through: Ensure the report is **followed through** so that all amendments are included. (To continue an action or task to its conclusion)

follow up: The investigation was **followed up** with the arrest of the gang leader. (To continue with a course of action so as to increase the chances of success)

get about: Despite being an octogenarian, she certainly **gets about** a lot. (To move about, especially out of bed after an illness)

get across: I just don't know how to **get** my message **across** to them. (To communicate successfully one's ideas to others)

get ahead: She's giving up politics as she feels it's hard for her to **get ahead**. (To be successful)

get ahead of: Instead of **getting ahead** of others, we are actually falling further behind. (To be in front of)

get along: They are trying to **get along** but they are arguing all the time. (To be on friendly terms)

get along: He said he was quite happy when asked how he was **getting along** in his new job. (To manage successfully)

get around: Rumour is **getting around** that Nick will be marrying a wealthy man's daughter. (To circulate)

get around: In the place where we visited, people **got around** on camels. (To travel from place to place)

get around: The politician somehow **got around** the question without giving an answer. (To evade)

get at: She didn't seem to like him as she kept **getting at** him. (To make repeated criticisms against someone and cause them to feel annoyed)

get at: Nobody knew what he was **getting at** by making a remark like that. (To state indirectly)

get at: Someone put that book on the top shelf and now I can't **get at** it. (To reach something)

get at: We still think he's the one who stole it; somehow, we will **get at** the truth. (To find out something)

get at: The father **got at** the police, and the charges against his son were dropped. (To bribe, or illegally influence someone)

get away: I want to know who deliberately opened the cage and let the bird **get away**? (To escape)

get away: He told his friends that the one that **got away** was that big, using his hands to indicate the size of the fish. (To break free)

get away: The boss felt he was overworked and that he needed to **get away** for a few days in Hawaii. (To holiday somewhere)

get away from: We cannot **get away from** the fact that we just cannot afford to buy a new car. (To face fact)

get away with: He must have thought he could **get away with** murder; he's now in prison for life. (To escape punishment for something wrong that one has done)

get away with: Maybe we can **get away with** entering the stadium for the match without tickets. (To succeed in doing something, which is not right)

get back: We didn't **get back** in time to watch the television programme. (To return to a place)

get back: She sworn to **get him back** for the remarks he made. (To do something in retaliation)

get back: She still hasn't **got** her puppy **back** after spending hours looking for it. (To have something returned)

get back to: I'll **get back to** him after he has calmed down completely. (To return to talk to someone)

get back to: I hope he won't interrupt again; let's **get back to** our conversation. (To do something again)

get back to: She said she would **get back to** me in five minutes; it's already one hour and I'm still waiting for her call. (To talk to someone again on the telephone)

get behind: Bob has **got behind** with his rent and is now avoiding the landlord. (To be in arrears)

get by: He has to stop smoking and drinking as his old age pension is barely enough to **get by**. (To succeed in managing)

get by: The handball **got by** the referee, and a penalty was not given. (To be unnoticed or ignored)

get down: These pills were a bit too, and I had a hard time **getting** them **down**. (To swallow)

get down: The frequent arguments between the parents are starting to **get** the children **down**. (To make depressed or unhappy)

get down: He was a good speaker and we tried to **get down** all that he said. (To write down)

get down to: It's time to stop talking and **get down to** clearing out our bedroom. (To start doing something)

get in: The lift was full and we couldn't **get in**. (To enter a place)

get into: Something must have **got into** him; he doesn't usually behave like that. (To cause surprise by behaving differently)

get into: Since her divorce, she has **got into** jogging. (To become interested in something)

get off: The post office has just closed; now how am I going to **get** this letter **off**? (To send a letter, parcel, etc)

get off: At bus stop some passengers sometimes **get off** a bus while it's still moving. (To get out of a vehicle)

get off: He **got off** owing to insufficient evidence. (To receive little or no punishment)

get on: I **got on** a wrong bus the other day and ended up somewhere else. (To go onto a bus, etc)

get on: How are you **getting on** in your new job? (To be able to manage)

get on: Their parents don't seem to **get on** with each other. (To have a good relationship)

get out: I am **getting** the next edition of my book **out** by the end of the month. (To publish)

get out: They believed he **got out** with outside help. (To help to escape)

get out of: We're having dinner with my mother-in-law tonight, but I'm planning to **get out of** it. (To avoid)

get out of: The seminar was about the same as the others; I didn't **get** much **out of** it. (To gain something that is useful)

get out of: Someone has to tell him to **get out of** constantly interrupting. (To stop doing something habitually)

get over: I still haven't **got over** the death of my parrot. (To recover from a bad or sad experience)

get over with: It is **getting over with** the exams that I am looking forward to. (To complete an unpleasant but necessary task)

get round: Let us **get round** him to join us for a drink in the bar. (To persuade)

get round: We **got round** the problem of cost by sharing one hotel room. (To solve a problem)

get round to: We finally **got round to** painting the back room. (To do something that should have been done earlier)

get through: I nearly killed myself when I failed to **get through** my final exam. (To pass an exam, test, etc)

get through: It was the third attempt that I **got through** to the department. (To succeed in making contact by telephone)

get through to: We must try to **get through** to him that it's dangerous to perform the stunt. (To make someone understand something)

get to: When she **got to** talking about politics, nothing could stop her. (To begin)

get to: I think I am moving out; the constant traffic noise is really **getting to** me. (To adversely affect)

get together: When we **get together** for a drink, we always end up arguing. (To come together)

get up: Everybody **gets up** when the national anthem is played. (To stand up)

get up: He only **gets up** when the second alarm clock goes off. (To wake up)

get up to: What are those kids **getting up to** – walking in the street in the middle of the night? (To do something bad or suspicious)

give away: It is the bride's father, mother or eldest brother who **gives** the bride **away**? (To present bride to bridegroom)

give away: The store is **giving away** a packet with every packet purchased. (To make free offer)

give away: We asked her to keep it a secret, but she **gave** it **away**. (To unintentionally disclose secret information)

give away: Since we no longer use all these clothes, why don't we just **give** them **away**? (To let others have the things we no longer need)

give back: He hasn't **given back** the money I lent him two years ago. (To return)

give in: They are a weak team, but they always play to win; they never **give in**. (To stop opposing)

give in to: A henpecked husband always **gives in to** his wife. (To submit)

give of: She used to **give of** her free time to help charitable work. (To devote one own self)

give off: Some insects **give off** unpleasant smell. (To sent forth smell, energy, heat, etc)

give out: Someone is **giving out** free samples of a brand new shampoo. (To distribute)

give out: Near the end of the race, his legs **gave out** causing him to knee down. (To fail to operate in the usual or proper way)

give over to: After his girlfriend of five years left him, he **gave** himself **over to** excessive drinking. (To submit oneself to feeling or doing something)

give up: They searched for their missing puppy, but eventually **gave up**. (To stop doing something)

give up: The fugitive wanted by police **gave** himself **up**. (To surrender)

give up: She **gave up** on writing a history of the world. (To abandon what one has been trying to do)

give up on: After waiting for two hours for the rain to stop, I'm **giving up on** it stopping any time soon. (To lose hope)

give up to: The family of the deceased **gave** themselves **up to** considerable grief. (To be emotionally overwhelmed)

go about: I think we should discuss how to **go about** imposing discipline in the workplace. (To begin to deal with something)

go about: The police recruits were shown how to **go about** patrolling the areas. (To begin working at something)

go about: Despite some civil unrest, people **go about** their business as usual. (To do what one usually does)

go after: Police **went after** him in an abandoned house, but he had already fled. (To try to catch someone)

go after: He preaches that you can get what you **go after** in life if you have the determination. (To try to get something)

go against: She **went against** her mother's advice when she divorced her husband. (To disagree)

go against: The judgment **went against** them, and they intend to appeal to a higher court. (To be unfavourable to)

go ahead: They **went ahead** with building the chemical plant despite strong local opposition. (To happen)

go ahead: When asked if I could borrow some of his tools, he told me to **go ahead**. (To give permission to do something)

go along: We will make the necessary adjustments as we **go along** with the project. (To continue with something)

go along with: I'm afraid I can't **go along with** your idea. (To agree)

go around/round: A rumour is **going around** that someone is going to be fired. (To happen in the present time)

go around/round: The problem now is we don't have enough chairs to **go around**. (To meet the requirement)

go around/round: You can't **go around** thinking everyone is unfriendly to you. (To do something that is not supported or proven by evidence)

go around/round: She often **goes around** talking to her own self. (To go here and there)

go at: The two fighting cocks **went at** each other with killing intent. (To attack with energy and enthusiasm)

go at: They **went at** building the levee with urgency and energy. (To commit oneself to an undertaking)

go away: We are **going away** to one of those tropical islands this Summer. (To spend time elsewhere from home)

go away: She was so angry with him that she told him to **go away** and leave her alone. (To leave)

go back: I left my wallet at home and now I've to **go back** for it. (To return for something)

go back: We had better **go back**; it's going to rain. (To return home, hotel, etc.)

go back on: She has **gone back on** her word to marry him. (To break one's promise)

go back to: She decided not to **go back to** work after her delivery. (To do something again)

go by: **Go by** the rules or I am not playing. (To act in accordance with a rule, decision, etc)

go by: You **go by** that old map and now we are lost. (To follow something)

go by: Years have **gone by** and there's still no news about their missing child. (To pass)

go down: While having a meal at a seaside resort, we watched the sun **go down**. (To move below the horizon)

go down: Your proposal didn't **go down** well with the others at the meeting. (To be accepted)

go for: Jenny is known to **go for** tall and handsome men with considerable wealth.

go for: The untruth of what he said about her made her **go for** him. (To attack physically or with words)

go for: James is determined to **go for** the gold medal this time. (To make great efforts to get something)

go for: Unlike her friends, she always **goes for** fast food. (To like someone or something better than another or others; to choose)

go in: No one knows why he **goes in** the cemetery after dark. (To enter a place)

go in: He is not **going in** with his inexperienced friends to start a catering business. (To start a business with someone)

go in for: The rodent was injured and the hawk **went in for** the kill. (To hunt and kill for food)

go into: He hasn't decided to **go into** teaching or journalism. (To join a profession)

go into: Considerable effort, time and money **went into** organizing the event. (To do or produce something)

go into: I don't want to **go into** any more detail than absolutely necessary. (To discuss or explain in detail)

go off: The bomb **went off** prematurely and killed the bomber. (To explode)

go off: His alarm clock **went off** at 6.30 and woke me up as well. (To make a loud noise)

go off: The whole stadium was plunged into complete darkness when the lights **went off**. (To stop working)

go off with: She has **gone off with** her brother-in-law. (To leave a loved one for someone else)

go off with: This is the third time he's **gone off with** my motorbike. (To use something without permission)

go on: As time **went on**, I became more attracted to her. (To pass)

go on: Can you **go on** to the next topic? This one is very boring. (To do something next)

go on: I just woke up and I didn't know what was **going on**. (To take place)

go on: He **went on** to become the first mayor of the city. (To go on to do something or become somebody)

go on: We are waiting for her to **go on** with the ghost story. (To continue)

go out: I don't usually **go out** unless I have to. (To go to any place outside one's home)

go out: The fire in the fireplace had **gone out** while we were sleeping. (To stop burning)

go out: He has been **going out** with somebody's wife. (To have a relationship)

go out: It's the first time they **went out** at the quarter-final stage. (To lose in a sports competition)

go over: I saw the horrific accident and it kept **going over** and over in my mind.

go over: Let's **go over** the figures again and see why they don't tally. (To look at closely)

go through: She **went through** the terrible five-hour ordeal while being held as a hostage. (To experience)

go through: The officers **went through** our luggage very carefully. (To examine carefully)

go through: A bill has to **go through** Parliament before it can become law. (To be discussed and voted on to become law)

go through with: Jane feels she isn't ready yet to **go through with** the wedding. (To do something that has been agreed or promised)

go together: An orange shirt and purple trousers don't **go together**. (To be well-suited)

go together: If you know her, you will know brain and beauty do **go together**. (To be found together)

go under: Many small businesses **go under** in the first year of operation. (To fail)

go under: The ship **went under** shortly after colliding with a giant iceberg. (To sink)

go up: Many tall buildings have **gone up** since my last visit here. (To be built)

go up: The accident caused one of the cars to **go up** in flame. (To explode)

go up: The price of petrol has **gone up** again. (To increase)

go with: Does Ivan's baldness **go with** his bushy beard? (To suit)

go with: His wife was the only woman he ever **went with**. (To have a romantic relationship)

go with: A chauffeur-driven car **goes with** the job. (To combine something with something else)

go with: Bob has come up with the best plan, let's **go with** it. (To accept an idea)

go without: A new car is something we have to **go without** as we cannot afford it. (To not have something)

hand around/round: Could one of you **hand** these drinks **around**? (To pass something to all the people present in a group)

hand back: We **handed back** the forms after filling them. (To return something to the same person who gave it out)

hand down: These stories and legends have been **handed down** from generation to generation. (To pass on from older to younger generation)

hand down: Her pearl necklace was **handed down** from her grandmother. (To pass something on to a younger member of the family)

hand down: The court **handed down** a life sentence. (To publicly announce a judgment)

hand in: The students **handed in** their homework without being told to. (To give something to a person who is in a position of authority)

hand out: The volunteers helped to **hand out** parcels of food to victims of the disaster. (To distribute)

hand over: The captives were ordered to **hand over** their weapons. (To give up)

hand over: Members of the crowd caught the pickpocket and **handed him over** to the police. (To pass control of someone to someone else)

hand over: The receptionist **handed** my call **over** to the person in charge. (To pass responsibility for something to someone else)

hang around: She spends her time **hanging around** with friends in the park. (To idle)

hang around: He **hanged around** with the wrong people and ended up in prison. (To spend with someone)

hang back: He is often advised not to **hang back** but to mix freely at school. (To be reluctant to do something because of lack of confidence or shyness)

hang on: She asked me to **hang on** while she made a telephone call. (To wait)

hang on: The standing passengers **hung on** tight as the bus went along a narrow, bumpy road. (To hold tightly to something)

hang on: We were exhausted but we realised we had to **hang on** a bit longer as we were nearing the summit. (To continue in spite of difficulty)

hang on: He believes the success of his public speaking **hangs on** his ability to speak effectively and clearly. (To depend on)

hang on: The cult members **hang on** every word spoken by their leader as they have great faith in him. (To pay particular attention to)

hang on to: Grandpa **hangs on to** his collection of stamps with the belief that they become more and more valuable as time passes. (To keep something)

hang out: After school, he **hangs out** with his classmates in a snooker hall. (To spend a lot of time with someone at some place)

hang over: The thought of her husband's unfaithfulness never ceases to **hang over** her. (To mull the possibility of something happening)

hang together: They **hung together** while waiting for the rescue team to find them. (To stick or stay together)

hang up: She was so angry she **hung up** before I could explain. (To abruptly end a telephone conversation)

hang up: Finally, she **hung up** after speaking for more than an hour. (To replace the telephone receiver)

happen along: We invited our former lecturer to join us for a drink when he **happened along**. (To be, come, or go to a place by chance)

happen by: We would have remained lost if we hadn't **happened by** a souvenir shop selling street maps. (To find a place by chance)

happen on/upon: He **happened upon** the key to his car just as he was about to give up his search. (To find by chance)

happen on/upon: We were walking and chatting when we **happened on** a fat wallet on the pavement. (To come upon)

happen to: Whatever **happened to** those ducks that used to waddle along the river bank. (To have or seem to have disappeared)

hold against: It was not totally his fault, so I can't **hold it against** him alone. (To dislike someone for their past wrong or mistake)

hold back: She struggled to **hold back** her tears. (To have control over something)

hold back: He felt his lack of qualifications would **hold him back** from his well-deserved promotion. (To block one's advancement)

hold back: The police subjected him to further interrogation as they believed he was **holding back** some information. (To retain in one's possession)

hold down: Mick seems unable to **hold down** a job for longer than a month. (To keep a job)

hold down: He wanted to beat up the other guy, and it took the two of us to **hold him down**. (To restrain someone)

hold forth: For more than an hour, the speaker **held forth** on the inevitable end of the world. (To talk at great length)

hold off: He always **holds off** making decisions until the very last moment. (To delay doing something)

hold off: It was unexpected that, despite the looming dark clouds, the rain **held off** until after we arrived home. (To have not happened at once)

hold off: They **held** the invading armies **off** until reinforcements arrived. (To avoid being attacked)

hold on: He asked me to **hold on** and he will be out in a minute. (To wait for a short while)

hold on: In the tug of war, the participants **held on** tightly to the rope and pulled it with all their might. (To maintain a firm hold of something)

hold on to: We **held tightly on to** the rail as the bus sped on. (To grip firmly to something)

hold on to: She **held on to** the national title for the second year running. (To retain possession of)

hold out: The supermarket **held out** the chance for customers to win a brand new car. (To offer)

hold out: They could not **hold out** the fort as reinforcements arrived late. (To defend or continue to resist)

hold out: Will the food **hold out** through the winter? (To last)

hold out: The financial leaders are not **holding out** any hope of a quick recovery in the national economy. (To offer the prospect for the future)

hold out for: The other party is not **holding out for** a compromise, but instead insisted they are the legal owners of the land. (To accept something less)

hold out on: Why do you **hold out on** me all the things I need to know? (To desist from providing information)

hold over: The match was **held over** because of the snowy conditions. (To postpone)

hold over: The film was unexpectedly **held over** for a couple of months. (To extend the duration of the showing of a film)

hold to: The home team **held** the away team **to** a 2-2 draw. (To manage to achieve a draw and nothing more against an opponent)

hold to: She **held to** her religious beliefs despite marrying someone from another religion. (To remain faithful)

hold together: The different factions within the party are **held together** by a charismatic leader. (To remain united or mutually loyal)

hold up: We arrived late as we were **held up** by traffic jam. (To delay)

hold up: The gang **held up** a money changer at gunpoint before fleeing with huge amounts of different currencies. (To rob someone using the threat of violence)

hold up as: The Governor was **held up as** a model of integrity and decency. (To use as a model)

identify with: He **identified** very much **with** the main character in the film. (To consider oneself as equivalent to someone else)

improve on: The second edition greatly **improves on** the first one. (To produce something better than)

inform against/on: A member **inform against** the other members of the armed gang. (To disclose incriminating information to an authority)

inform against/on: He was summarily arrested when his comrades **informed on** him. (To reveal incriminating information about someone)

infringe on: Discussing a politician's divorce is tantamount to **infringing on** his personal life. (To encroach on someone or something)

inquire after: Amy is deeply concerned about you; she's always **inquiring after** your health and well-being. (To ask about the state of health of someone)

inquire into: The police are **inquiring into** his relationship with the terrorist group. (To investigate or gather information)

inquire of: The reporters **inquired of** the party leader when he would resign for his part in the bribery scandal. (To ask for information)

interfere with: Lack of confidence has seriously **interfered with** his performance at school. (To prevent something from working effectively)

interfere with: A teacher was arrested for **interfering with** his young charges. (To sexually molest)

invest in: The company **invests** heavily **in** research and development. (To spend for future benefit)

invest in: Their old leaking house makes them feel the need to **invest in** a new one. (To acquire something useful)

invest with: The party constitution **invested** the party leader **with** the power to approve candidates for election. (To provide with power or authority)

invest with: He was **invested with** great charisma which few leaders in his country have had. (To endow someone or something with a particular quality or characteristic)

issue forth: The relatives could hear the groans **issuing forth** from the dying patient. (To flow or come out from something)

issue from: From a long distance, we could see smoke **issuing from** a lone cottage chimney. (To come out)

jack up: The storekeepers wouldn't dare **jack up** prices because of a new supermarket nearby. (To raise)

jack up: This is the third time in two years the landlord has **jacked up** the rents. (To increase)

jack up: We had to **jack up** the car to replace its punctured tyre. (To use a jack to lift a heavy object off the ground)

join in: We **join** them **in** clearing up the beach. (To become a member of a group involved in an activity)

join up: The three sisters thought the army was the right choice for them, and they had **joined up**. (To become a member of one of the armed forces)

join up: We **joined up with** a vigilante group to patrol the neighbourhood. (To unite with other people to do something)

join with: They are asking anyone to **join with** them in their campaign for racial equality. (To come or bring together for a common purpose; to unite)

jot down: I **jotted** her telephone number **down** on my palm. (To write something hastily)

jump at: He **jumped at** the chance to join the trip to the Niagara Falls. (To accept eagerly)

jump at: She **jumped at** the bargain on offer. (To act quickly as a reaction to something)

jump at: The supervisor **jumped at** me for making the mistake. (To make a verbal attack)

jump in: That was not the first time he **jumped in** when I was still talking. (To interrupt someone)

jump on: Her mother never failed to **jump on** her whenever she was home late. (To express disapproval of)

jump out at: The luminous billboard really **jumped out at** us especially when we pass by it in the dark. (To appear highly noticeable)

keep at: We **kept at** it until we completed it ahead of schedule. (To persist)

keep at: The employer **kept** the foreign workers **at** it until late at night. (To force someone to persist)

keep away: You should **keep away** from that fast-flowing river. (To avoid going to a place)

keep away: The villagers **kept** their children **away** from outsiders who happened to be there. (To prevent someone from seeing someone else)

keep back: I think she is **keeping** something **back** that she does not want us to know. (To not tell everything)

keep back: We can't use all our savings to buy the car; we have to **keep** some **back** for emergency use. (To not use all)

keep down: Last night, I overate and couldn't **keep** my food **down**. (To stop oneself from vomiting)

keep down: Something has to be done to **keep** global population **down**. (To prevent something from growing)

keep down: We are now in a library; please **keep** your voice **down**. (To bring under control)

keep from: He has only two months to live, so should we **keep him from** knowing? (To not tell about something)

keep from: Some spectators couldn't **keep from** booing loudly at the referee for not giving a free kick. (To stop oneself from doing something)

keep in with: He is **keeping in with** his former business mentor who he believes could one day help in steering his new business to success. (To maintain friendly contact with someone that could prove beneficial in the future)

keep off: **Keep** your hands **off** my pizza. (To not move into an area)

keep off: His doctor advised him to **keep off** excessive smoking in order to stay healthy. (To refrain from doing or eating something that is harmful to one's health)

keep off: Why is he walking on the grass when the notice in front of him says '**keep off** the grass'? (To stay away from)

keep on: She **keeps** harping **on** the one little mistake I made. (To carry on doing or saying the same thing)

keep on: I was informed that they might not **keep** me **on** in the new year as the company will be downsizing. (To retain the employment of an employee)

keep out: She should **keep** the baby monkey **out** instead of sleeping with it. (To stop someone or something from being in a place)

keep out: At the construction site, there's a big sign that read '**keep out**'. (To tell people to stay away)

keep out of: It's not our business, so we had better **keep out of** it. (To not get involved)

keep to: Why do you beat about the bush? **Keep to** what you want to say. (To stick to a subject)

keep to: **Keep** what I just told you **to** yourself, or I will never tell you anything again. (To maintain a secret)

keep to: **Keep to** this street for the time being, or we will get lost again. (To stay in a particular area, etc)

keep to: If we **keep to** our plan, nothing will go wrong. (To adhere to)

keep to: If you **keep to** yourself all the time, you won't know anybody or have any friend. (To not talk to or mix with other people)

keep up: The furious barking of the neighbour's dog **kept** me **up** the whole night. (To keep someone awake)

keep up: It's really tough to **keep up** the monthly payments for the house. (To continue to pay off)

keep up: The boss likes to tell me to **keep up** the good work, but I have not got an increment for two years. (To continue doing something)

keep up: The factory is maintaining double shifts to **keep up** the volume of production. (To prevent a high level from falling)

keep up with: She's always trying to **keep up with** her siblings. (To be equal with someone else's success or lifestyle)

keep up with: He knows he has to work very hard to **keep up with** the rest of the class. (To be as good as someone else)

keep up with: We only watch the news on television to **keep up with** what's goes on in the outside world. (To keep abreast of)

knock around/about: This big bully would **knock** the smaller kids **about**. (To treat with violence)

knock around/about: I too would like to **knock around** the different countries on the Continent. (To travel through different places)

knock around/about: We have been meeting to **knock around** the idea of starting our own business. (To discuss or think carefully about something)

knock around/about: After we bought a new lock, we found the one we were looking for **knocking about** in the storeroom. (To be lying somewhere that is not exactly known)

knock back: He **knocked back** his drink in one go and ordered another one. (To swallow a drink quickly)

knock back: We are getting a second-hand car; a new one will **knock** us **back** a large sum of money. (To cost a lot)

knock down: The speeding car **knocked down** a villager's goat. (To hit with a vehicle)

knock down: The old building was **knocked down** to make way for a block of apartments. (To demolish)

knock down: She bought a new dress which was **knocked down** to nearly half of its original price. (To reduce price)

knock off: My dad can't **knock off** work at the same time every day. (To stop working or doing something)

knock off: The seller **knocked off** thirty dollars because of a slight dent. (To reduce price by an amount)

knock off: He **knocked off** someone else's invention and claimed it as his own. (To steal or imitate)

knock out: The underdog **knocked out** his opponent in the last round. (To defeat an opponent in sports)

knock out: The tourist was **knocked out** by a coconut that dropped on his head. (To become unconscious)

knock out: The storm **knocked out** the power lines. (To cause something to be not working)

knock over: His dog got **knocked over** by a car as it ran across the street. (To be hit by a vehicle)

knock together: He **knocked together** a birdhouse with whatever he could find in the storeroom. (To assemble)

knock up: He doesn't own an alarm clock, but depends on the landlady to **knock him up** in the morning. (To wake someone up by knocking at the door)

lapse into: He **lapsed into** a coma after suffering a brain haemorrhage/hemorrhage. (To pass gradually into a worse state or condition)

lay about: He **laid about** his would-be pickpocket with his walking stick. (To beat violently on all sides)

lay aside: They may decide to **lay aside** the building project until the rainy season ends. (To temporarily suspend doing something)

lay aside: The couple **lay/lays aside** an amount of money for a summer holiday. (To save for future use)

lay away: The land has been **laid away** for a housing project. (To reserve for future use)

lay down: A call for ceasefire was ignored as both sides refused to **lay down** their arms. (To stop fighting)

lay down: The document **lays down** clear guidelines on the use of chemicals. (To formulate rule, principle, etc)

lay down: It is an underground cellar where they **lay down** wine. (To store (wine) for drinking in the future)

lay in: Residents in this remote region usually **lay in** sufficient food in case they are cut off by adverse weather conditions. (To store away a supply of something for future use)

lay into: No one knew why she suddenly **laid into** him. (To carry out a physical or verbal attack against someone)

lay off: Mark was **laid off** after working for the company for twenty years. (To discharge a worker temporarily or permanently)

lay off: She warned him to **lay off** excessive alcohol or she would leave him. (To stop doing or using something)

lay on: They **laid on** a generous buffet for visitors to their sales promotion. (To provide something such as food, entertainment, etc)

lay out: Miniature models of houses and buildings in a new housing estate were **laid out** for viewing. (To arrange or spread out something)

lay out: He has no hesitation in **laying out** hundreds of dollars on a hotel room for a night. (To spend large amount of money)

lay out: He was **laid out** for a few minutes when a ball struck him on the head. (To knock unconscious)

lay over: He usually **lays over** when driving on a long journey. (To make a stopover when going on a journey)

lead off: He **led off** by thanking those present for joining in the discussion. (To start or begin)

lead on: How long is he going to let her **lead him on** before the truth dawns on him? (To deceive)

lead to: We took a wrong turn which **led us to** an old cemetery. (To join directly to some place)

lead to: A reward for information **led to** the capture of the murderer. (To result in something happening)

lead up to: The television documentary recounted the events **leading up to** the bombing of the airport. (To give an account of something)

leaf through: Bob **leafed through** many magazines while waiting at the clinic. (To turn pages quickly without serious reading)

lean against: He **leaned** a ladder **against** the gutter to reach the roof. (To rest something against something else so that it is supported)

lean on: In times of difficulty it would be great to have someone to **lean on** for support. (To derive support from)

lean towards: Police believe the group is **leaning towards** terrorism. (To have a tendency)

leave aside: Let's **leave** that **aside** as it is not relevant in this discussion. (To not include something)

leave behind: I have this feeling that I have **left** something **behind**, but can't figure out what it is. (To forget to take something with you)

leave behind: The deceased **left behind** a wife and two children. (To have surviving relatives after one's death)

leave behind: The tourists **left behind** a trail of litter. (To go away from a place without taking something along)

leave behind: The storm has passed, **leaving behind** a trail of devastation. (To go away and cause something such as damage and destruction to remain)

leave behind: You will get **left behind** if you don't work as hard as the others. (To lag or fall behind)

leave off: Let's continue from where we **left off**. (To stop doing something)

leave out: This is the first time he is **left out** of the squad for the World Cup. (To not include someone or something)

let down: He really **let us down** by not turning up to show us how to do it. (To disappoint someone)

let down: The few of them **let** the candidate **down** by switching their support to his opponent. (To withdraw support)

let in: Let's open the windows and **let** the air **in**. (To allow something to enter)

let in: She believed the house was haunted as the bedroom door once opened by itself and **let** her **in**. (To allow someone to enter)

let in: He's beginning to realize how much trouble he is **letting** himself **in** by borrowing heavily from different sources. (To place oneself in a difficult situation)

let in on: She's prepared to **let** me **in on** her secret recipe if I promised not to tell other people. (To trust someone)

let into: They only **let** certain individuals **into** the building. (To allow someone to enter)

let off: If you pluck my apples again, I'll not **let** you **off**. (To not punish someone)

let off: Someone tied a string of firecrackers to a dog's tail and **let** it **off**. (To make something explode)

let on: He made her promise not to **let on** that he did it. (To reveal something)

let out: It usually barks when it wants to be **let out**. (To allow someone or something to leave)

let out: When she heard the news, she **let out** a sigh of relief. (To utter a sound)

let out: She's **letting** some of her clothes **out** as she has put on weight. (To make an item of clothing looser)

let up: It looks like the rain is not going to **let up**, so what shall we do? (To stop or abate)

let up: The rescuers will not **let up** in their effort to find the missing victims. (To become less determined)

level against: They have yet to prove the charges relating to embezzlement **leveled against** him. (To direct accusation at someone)

level at: All he can ever do is **level** criticism **at** others for their mistakes. (To aim something such as criticism, accusation, weapon, etc at someone)

level off: Prices of houses in the area have **leveled off** after recent hike. (To not fluctuate)

level out: After reaching the height of 20,000 feet, the plane **leveled out**. (To move horizontally)

level with: The candidate's aides will **level with** him about what the voters are saying about him. (To speak frankly)

lie around: With all these things **lying around** in the garage, we just can't find anything. (To fill a place with an untidy collection of things)

lie around: Let's take a week off and **lie around** on some secluded beach. (To pass time lying down while not doing anything)

lie about: I shouldn't have left my keys **lying about**; now I can't find them. (To leave things not in their proper places)

lie behind: No one knew what **lay behind** their sudden change of decision. (To be the real cause although it is not immediately obvious)

lie back: He **lay back** in the barber's chair for a shave. (To change from sitting to lying position)

lie down: He was told to **lie down** for the doctor to examine him. (To take a sleeping or resting position)

lie in: I wish I could **lie in** and did not have to get up so early. (To remain in bed later than usual)

lie in: The real cause of the problem **lies in** the poor construction of the bridge. (To reside or be found)

lie with: The fault **lay** not **with** her but with her manager. (To regard something as being caused by someone else)

lie with: The choice as to which schools the children should attend **lies with** their parents. (To be decided by)

listen for: John must **listen for** her cough before he can respond. (To attentively listen for something)

listen in: When the fighting broke out, I **listened in** to the daily news. (To watch or listen to a television or radio broadcast)

listen in on: She's always **listening in on** her sister's conversations on the phone. (To secretly listen to a conversation)

listen in to: They **listened in to** the news as soon as the fighting broke out. (To listen to a broadcast)

listen out for: Each time there's an announcement, we **listened out for** the flight number. (To listen to something that is anticipated)

live in: He called the police as his butler who **lived in** suddenly disappeared. (To reside in the place where one is employed)

live off: He regarded **living off** the welfare as beneath his dignity. (To depend as a source of support)

live off/live off the land: Most of the residents in the remote area **live off their land**. (To depend as a source of food)

live on: The pain of losing her husband still **lives on**. (To continue to exist)

live on: The memory of that five-day ordeal at the hands of the hijackers **lives on** in my mind. (To continue to exist)

live out: He escaped from prison and **lived out** his life as a free man. (To live the rest of one's life in a way that one chooses)

live out: The three household servants we employed agreed to **live out**. (To not live in the place where one is employed)

live out: His release from prison makes it possible for him to **live out** a life that he has imagined. (To spend one's life in a particular way)

live through: She had **lived through** the terrifying experience as a hostage held for two months. (To experience something dangerous or difficult)

live up to: She is certainly **living up to** her reputation as an incorrigible flirt. (To fulfil what is desired, promised or expected)

live with: He was often seised by a sudden attack of cramp, which he had learned to **live with**. (To tolerate or endure)

lock away: They lost their valuables which were not **locked away** in a burglary. (To lock something in a safe place)

lock in: She **locked** her children **in** and went to a nearby grocery store. (To keep someone in a building or room by locking the door)

lock onto: Our naval ship **locked onto** a vessel that had intruded into our waters. (By tracking an enemy target after locating it by radar)

lock out: This is the second time I've **locked** myself **out**. (To not allow someone entry to a place by locking the door)

lock up: As usual, we have to **lock up** before we leave the office. (To lock all doors and windows)

lock up: The police recaptured the escaped prisoner and **locked** him **up** in the maximum-security prison. (To imprison someone)

look after: Who is going to **look after** our dogs, cats and gold fish when we go on vacation? (To take care of)

look after: He left his job to **look after** his sick wife. (To take care of)

look ahead: We can **look ahead** to owning a new car if we start saving now. (To be aware of and prepare for a future event)

look around/round: We have been **looking around** for a toilet. (To search)

look around/round: Let's **look round** the antique shops for old coins. (To survey goods in a casual way)

look at: The officer **looked at** my passport, then my smiling face and waved me through. (To direct one's gaze on someone or something)

look back: Each time I **look back** at that fateful day, I realize I could have done more to save her. (To recall)

look back/never look back: After his new business received its first big order, he

never looked back. (To continue to be successful)

look back on: When I **look back on** those moments, I realize how unlucky I was. (To remember a past event)

look down on: She **looked down on** anyone who was a school dropout. (To regard someone as of lesser importance)

look for: Police are **looking for** a man with a heavily tattooed face. (To search for someone or something)

look forward to: I **look forward to** seeing my next movie. (To anticipate eagerly)

look in on: Every other day we **look in on** grandpa to see if he needs anything. (To make a short visit)

look into: There was a proposal that management **looked into** the high turnover of staff. (To inquire into or investigate)

look on: Only one person helped him, the others just **looked on**. (To watch without getting involved)

look on: A large crowd **looked on** as the two cocks fought bravely. (To watch without getting involved)

look on/upon: We are beginning to **look upon** him as a close friend. (To regard in a certain way)

look out: We **looked out** the attic but couldn't find the old coffee pot. (To search for)

look out for: **Look out for** pickpocket while you are there. (To keep careful watch for possible danger or difficulties)

look out for: They promised to **look out for** each other on the expedition. (To take care)

look over: I **looked** the shorts **over** and decided to buy two pairs. (To inspect hastily)

look through: Police **looked through** his house and found blood stains. (To look for something among other things)

look through: We **looked through** all the drawers, but still couldn't find the document. (To search untidily for something)

look to: They are cheering and **looking to** the last runner to win the relay. (To depend on someone to provide something that is expected, promised or hope for)

look up: He expects his business to **look up** in the new year. (To improve)

look up: I enjoy enormously **looking** words **up** in the dictionary. (To search for and find a piece of information)

look up: I never fail to **look** her **up** whenever I am in the vicinity. (To visit)

look up to: He is the kind of man most people **look up to**. (To have considerable respect or admiration for someone)

make away with: I saw in a store a kid **made away with** a bar of chocolate. (To steal)

make for: We quickly **made for** the river bank when our boat started to leak. (To move towards somewhere)

make for: Knowing the same language **makes for** better communication. (To produce a particular result)

make into: They **made** the car park **into** a four-storey office building. (To change something so that it becomes something else)

make of: Your life is what you **make of** it. (To influence the formation or development of)

make of: His last word before he died was about poison; what do you **make of** it? (To ask someone for their opinion)

make off: The robbers **made off** when the alarm sounded. (To leave hurriedly)

make off with: Police arrested a pickpocket who **made off with** ten wallets. (To take something away illegally)

make out: She whispered in my ear, but I could not **make out** what it was. (To understand)

make out: I can't **make out** the sign through the fog. (To see, hear or recognize with difficulty)

make out: He **made out** a cheque in payment of the fees. (To write out)

make out: Why do they **make** him **out** to be a religious person when he is not? (To portray someone in a particular way)

make over: He **made over** his entire estate to his only child. (To transfer the ownership of something to someone else)

make over: The family bought the old crumbling mansion and **made** it **over** into an imposing one. (To restore to a good state)

make towards: She **made towards** the exit when she had made all her purchases. (To go in the direction of something)

make up: The maid **made up** their bedroom when they were out. (To set something in order)

make up: It's pretty obvious she **made up** that story about being attacked. (To invent something such as a story, excuse, etc so as to deceive)

make up: We **made up** a list of the tasks that are to be tackled in order of priority. (To put something together)

make up: He saved as much as he could for the car, and his dad **made up** the deficit. (To make good the amount that falls short of what is required)

make up: They are **making up** for lost time by working overtime. (To replace)

make up: Each morning, she takes considerable time to **make up** before leaving for work. (To apply make-up)

make up: Tips **made up** a large portion of his income. (To form a part of a whole)

make up: The two neighbours mutually agreed to **make up** with a handshake. (To restore friendly relations after a quarrel)

make up for: No amount of money could **make up for** the loss of her husband. (To compensate)

make up to: Jack **made up to** Jill in hopes of keeping her as his girlfriend. (To do something that is to one's advantage)

mark down: The store attracts a big crowd as most items on sale have been **marked down**. (To reduce the price of something)

mark off: She **marked off** all the items she had bought. (To use a mark to indicate an item has been dealt with)

mark off: Police **marked off** the crime scene with tape. (To use something to separate an area)

mark out: They have **marked out** the area for vehicles to park. (To draw lines to indicate something)

mark up: Flour is likely to be **marked up** as there will soon be a shortfall in supply. (To increase the price of something)

mete to: His family felt that the sentence **meted out** to him was unjustly harsh. (To give punishment)

mix up: I called the wrong number when I **mixed** your telephone number **up** with another. (To fail to distinguish between two or more persons or things)

mix up: Someone **mixed** those cards **up** when they should arrange the titles on the cards in alphabetical order. (To disarrange a group of things by putting them in the wrong order)

mop up: The milk spilled across the floor, and who is to **mop** it **up**? (To clean a surface by soaking up a liquid)

move away: The children **moved away** as soon as they got married. (To go to a different place to live)

move in: We **moved in** as soon as it was ready for occupation. (To begin to occupy a new house)

move in on: The police have located the gang's hideout and are **moving in on** it. (To go closer to a place in order to attack or seize control of it)

move on: We have already been here a couple of days; let's **move on** to our next destination. (To get going)

move on: I pulled over but a traffic policeman waved to me to **move on**. (To leave a place)

move out: We decided to **move out** when the landlord increased the rent again. (To cease to live in a house)

move over: Let's **move over** and let him sit down. (To change from one position to another so that more space is available)

nibble away at: All these tidbits are **nibbling away at** the money we brought along with us. (To make or become gradually less)

nod off: He often **nods off** while watching television. (To doze off unintentionally)

occur to: It never **occurred to** me that you really believe the world is flat. (To come to one's mind)

open into: Like a hotel, each room in the mansion **opens into** the corridor. (To lead to a particular place)

open up: In the army barracks, a soldier went berserk and **opened up** with a machine gun. (To begin firing)

open up: Every morning the stallholders in the new market **open up** well before dawn. (To start business)

open up: After much persuasion, she finally **opened up** and revealed the truth about what happened that day. (To speak readily)

open up: The surgeons **opened** the patient **up** and discovered what they had been suspecting all along. (To perform a surgical operation)

open up: The developer **opened up** the land for a housing estate. (To convert land to a new purpose, especially by constructing buildings)

pass around/round: Please take a form and **pass** the others **around**. (To give something to everyone in a group)

pass away: Grandpa **passed away** peacefully in his sleep. (To die)

pass by: The small child watched open-mouthed the parade **passing by**. (To move past)

pass by: I **passed by** her without being noticed by her. (To move past someone and not be recognized)

pass by: We often sat on the river bank and looked at the barges **passing by**. (To go past someone or something)

pass down: The centuries-old tradition still **passes down** from generation to generation. (To hand something down from older people to younger ones)

pass for: His mother-in-law in mini-skirt could easily **pass for** a teenager. (To regard something as true)

pass off: There is no reason for me to **pass** myself **off** as anyone else. (To falsely represent oneself as someone else)

pass off: The protest match against alleged vote rigging **passed off** peacefully. (To happen in a satisfactory way)

pass off: He was under investigation for **passing off** fakes as authentic documents. (To deliberately cause someone to believe something that is not true or genuine)

pass on: You **passed** your cough **on** to me; see, I'm coughing now. (To infect someone)

pass on: The restaurant owners threatened to **pass** the proposed increase in the service tax **on** to the consumers. (To let someone else bear the cost of something)

pass on: It's exactly a year that he **passed on**. (To die)

pass on: He was not present as no one **passed on** the message about the urgent meeting to him. (To pass something from one person to another)

pass out: During a heavy drinking session, he suddenly **passed out**. (To briefly lose consciousness)

pass out: He **passed out** the application forms to those who put up their hands. (To give out something)

pass out: She was the only woman who **passed out** from one of the top police colleges in the country. (To successfully compete a training, especially in the armed forces)

pass over: Jane threatened to resign when she was **passed over** for promotion. (To be ignored or left out)

pass over: Certain facts were **passed over**, thus making the report misleading. (To avoid mentioning something)

pass round/around: Please **pass** these drinks **round**. (To offer something to everyone in a group)

pass up: His parents thought he should accept it as the opportunity to work overseas is too good to **pass up**. (To reject)

pass up: He **passed up** a chance for promotion out of fear of new responsibilities. (To refuse to accept)

pay back: I'll **pay** him **back** one of these days for what he did to me. (To revenge oneself)

pay back: Can I now **pay** you **back** half of the amount I owe you? (To repay someone)

pay for: Let's hope he will **pay** dearly **for** the evil deeds he did. (To be punished)

pay in: I will **pay** this cheque **in** for you. (To put money into an account)

pay into: I will **pay** this cheque **into** your account. (To put money into an account)

pay off: He wanted to **pay** me **off** substantially to keep quiet about something illegal he had done. (To bribe someone to keep quiet, especially about something that is illegal or dishonest)

pay off: Our persistence really **paid off** as we got this thing done successfully. (To produce a good outcome)

pay off: We **paid off** the washing machine in four installments. (To make full settlement of one's debt)

pay out: A huge sum of money was **paid out** to the jackpot winner. (To give out money)

pay out: I don't know how much I have to **pay out** to fix the leak in the roof. (To spend)

pay up: I was told to **pay up** by Monday or had my car repossessed. (To make a payment although not readily or eagerly)

pick at: The patient **picked at** her breakfast. (To eat in small amounts, displaying no desire to satisfy one's hunger or need for food)

pick off: We **picked** the moving toy ducks **off** one by one at the fun fair, and won some prizes. (To shoot someone or something one by one from a distance)

pick on: I don't think she likes me; she's always **picking on** me. (To repeatedly choose the same person for unfair treatment)

pick out: Anyone of us can **pick out** Rose's father from the crowd because he is exceptionally tall. (To easily recognize someone in a group)

pick over: We **picked over** the apples before buying them. ((To examine item by item, choosing the ones one wants)

pick up: We **picked** the broken pieces **up** off the floor. (To lift)

pick up: As we walked along the beach, we **picked up** empty sea shelves. (To collect)

pick up: Finally, the bus arrived to **pick up** commuters. (To take on passengers or goods)

pick up: The mechanic called to ask me to **pick up** my car. (To get or bring back something from somewhere)

pick up: The father **picked up** some items of food from a grocer's shop. (To buy)

pick up: She **picked up** some discounted dresses in the sale. (To buy something cheaply)

pick up: We could **pick up** French more quickly when we lived in France. (To learn through practice)

pick up: He was **picked up** as a suspect from his home by the police. (To detain someone)

pick up: The kind uncle offered to **pick up** the tab. (To accept to pay a, especially restaurant, bill for food, drinks, etc)

pick up: He **picked up** an unknown disease while on an overseas holiday. (To catch an illness)

pick up: We waited until the wind **picked up** before setting sail. (To increase or improve)

pick up: Sales are expected to **pick up** at the end of the year. (To improve)

pick up: One of the hounds had **picked up** the scent of a fox. (To detect)

pitch in: Bob **pitched in** to help complete the project before the deadline. (To join in with a task or activity)

pitch in: Some employers **pitched in** with financial help to get the training scheme going. (To provide help or support)

pitch into: He would **pitch into** anyone who commented that he was uncooperative. (To make physical or verbal attack against someone)

pitch up: By the time he **pitched up**, the evening was drawing to a close. (To turn up)

plan on: She **plans on** allowing only invited guests at her party. (To decide on something and arrange it in advance)

plan on: They had not **planned on** having such bad weather. (To prepare for a future event)

plan out: We have already **planned out** the schedule for a week's outing to the seaside resort. (To make thorough preparation)

play along: He **played along** with her suggestion for the time being. (To act so as to make it appear that you are cooperating when in fact you are not)

play around: He was **playing around** with a pencil when he talked to me. (To make small movements with something in the hand/s)

play around: She heard a rumour that her boss was **playing around** with his secretary. (To enter into a casual sexual relationship with a woman)

play at: Some of the children love to **play at** cowboys and Red Indians. (To play the role of someone)

play back: I **played back** the tape-recorder to listen to my voice with a view to improving it. (To replay something that has been recorded)

play down: The accused's lawyers **played down** the seriousness of his offence. (To minimize the true importance of something)

play off: The two teams are **playing off** for a place in the Premier League. (To play in a tie, the winner of which goes to the next stage of the competition)

play off: The children are **playing off** one parent against the other. (To give your support to a person or group to oppose another in a dispute so as to gain an advantage or benefit for yourself)

play on: He's always **playing on** his friends' generosity to get free treats. (To exploit someone's way of thinking or feeling in order to benefit oneself)

play up: A pro-government newspaper **played up** the internal squabble of the main opposition party. (To give undue prominence to something)

play up to: Many politicians are expert at **playing up to** the voters to gain their votes. (To please someone for their support)

play with: He unconsciously **played with** his pen while talking to us. (To move something about with no useful purpose)

point out: The leader **pointed out** the things we should and shouldn't do while jungle trekking. (To inform someone of something)

point out: He **pointed** his teacher **out** to his parents. (To make someone notice a person)

point to: Available evidence **points to** pilot error as the cause of the crash. (To reach a particular conclusion based on fact which is likely to be true)

point up: The report **pointed up** the definite weaknesses in the security arrangements. (To draw attention to something)

polish off: David could easily **polish off** seven different types of fruit at one sitting. (To consume food or drink quickly)

polish off: As expected, the underdog was **polished off** in straight sets. (To defeat)

polish off: His family believed he was **polished off** by a hit man engaged by his ex-wife. (To kill)

polish up: We intend to **polish up** our English in order to know her better. (To improve on a skill)

polish up: You need to **polish up** your boots. (To make smooth and shiny by rubbing)

pull ahead: On the final lap, a fellow competitor **pulled ahead** of him. (To move in front)

pull apart: They **pulled** the two fighting cocks **apart** to end the cockfighting contest.. (To separate)

pull apart: His suggestion was **pulled apart** as impractical. (To criticize harshly)

pull at: The little boy **pulled at** the puppy's tail. (To pull quickly and sometimes repeatedly)

pull at: He **pulled at** her coat sleeve. (To pull quickly and repeatedly)

pull away: The ambulance **pulled away** from where it was parked and sped down the highway. (To go or leave, as used for a vehicle)

pull away: On the final lap, he **pulled away** from the other runners. (To move ahead)

pull away: He tried to hold her hand, but she **pulled it away**. (To withdraw or take away)

pull back: The visiting team **pulled** a goal **back** to end the match in a draw. (To gain a point, goal, etc)

pull back: The soldiers were ordered to **pull back** from their positions around the city. (To withdraw)

pull down: They had to **pull down** the old disused crumbling building. (To demolish)

pull in: The train **pulled in** just as we arrived at the station. (To arrive)

pull in: I **pulled in** at the side of the road to make a quick a phone call. (To come to a stop)

pull in: A few of the protesters were **pulled in** when they clashed with the police. (To take someone into custody)

pull in: Tennis is a popular sport that always **pulls in** large crowds. (To attract)

pull in: In this country, you don't **pull in** much as a teacher. (To earn)

pull off: Three men **pulled off** the biggest bank robbery in town. (To accomplish by effort, skill, or courage in spite of difficulties)

pull off: We **pulled off** the highway and stopped for a break. (To separate and go in a different direction)

pull out: They **pulled out** of the business deal when they sensed something amiss. (To withdraw)

pull out: We waved to them as the train **pulled out** of the station. (To depart)

pull out: The troops will be **pulled out** as soon as order is restored to the area. (To retreat)

pull over: The policeman waved me to **pull over**. (To stop a vehicle at the side of a road)

pull through: The doctors expected him to **pull through** despite the severe injuries he sustained in the accident. (To get through an illness or difficult situation)

pull up: He **pulled up** outside a convenience store. (To stop a vehicle)

put across: She **put** her opposing views **across** during the discussion. (To come out with ideas, etc in a way that is easily understood)

put across: The book **puts across** complex ideas in a way anyone can understand. (To make something easily understood)

put across: The candidate **put** herself **across** very well to the voters. (To communicate one's ideas to other people so as to promote oneself)

put aside: Every month she **puts aside** a sum of money to buy a car. (To save money for a specific purpose)

put aside: She **puts aside** an hour each day to meditate. (To give time to an activity)

put aside: Everyone **put aside** what they were doing and tuned in to a news flash about a major explosion at the city's airport. (To suddenly ignore what one is doing and turn one's attention to something else)

put aside: We are going to get the two sides to **put aside** their differences. (To ignore temporarily)

put away: The boys rushed to **put away** the toys when they heard their mummy is home. (To put something back in its regular place)

put away: He should be **put away** for being so violent, especially when he is drunk. (To confine someone to a place such as prison, hospital, etc)

put away: We **put away** as much as we can to meet future needs. (To save money)

put away: They **put away** the badly diseased stray dog. (To kill quickly in a humane way)

put back: You must **put** the books **back** when you have finished with them. (To return something to its usual place)

put back: The members have unanimously agreed to **put back** the party election. (To postpone)

put by: I'm **putting by** an amount of money each month for a new bike. (To set aside money for the future)

put down: The public demonstration was brutally **put down** by troops. (To forcibly put an end to riot, rebellion, etc)

put down: This heartless fellow seemed to enjoy **putting** me **down** when there were people around. (To criticize)

put down: He's not **put down** his lame horse. (To kill an animal painlessly)

put down: I think we have had enough to **put down** on a new car. (To pay a sum of money as the first instalment)

put down: The fans **put** the loss of their team **down** to too many inaccurate passing of the ball. (To regard something as being caused by something else)

put down: Everyone who entered the place had to **put** their names **down** in the visitors' book. (To write down something such as name, phone number, etc)

put down: You can **put** the box **down** in that corner (of the room). (To leave something on a surface such as the floor, etc)

put down: She **put down** the telephone and cursed loudly. (To return the telephone receiver to its proper place)

put down: You haven't **put** a couple of items **down** on the shopping list. (To include in a list)

put down: He told the taxi driver to **put** us **down** at the library. (To drop off passengers)

put down as: They **put** the politician **down as** a habitual liar. (To describe someone as belonging to a class of people possessing particular shared characteristics)

put forward: He **put forward** some very convincing arguments. (To propose for consideration)

put forward: Some countries **put** their clocks **forward** at certain time of the year. (To show a later time)

put forward: The opening time of the exhibition has been **put forward** owing to the large crowd waiting to go in. (To start at an earlier time)

put in: For the past week, we had to **put in** extra time to complete it before the deadline. (To use up time doing something)

put in: The consortium **put in** a multimillion pound bid for the football club. (To make a formal offer)

put in: All the team members have **put in** a great deal of effort. (To spend time, energy, effort, etc working on something)

put in: The workers **put in** individual claims arising out of accidents at work. (To submit a claim)

put in: If you meet the boss, **put in** a good word for me. (To bring to the attention of someone)

put in: I feel I must **put in** at least a brief appearance at the party. (To present oneself for a short time)

put in for: We have **put in for** a room with a view of the sea. (To make a request)

put off: Don't **put off** till tomorrow what you can do today. (To arrange for something to take place at a later time)

put off: She's preparing for her exams and will not allow anything to **put** her **off**. (To distract)

put off: Her highly critical attitude really **put** me **off**. (To cause someone to feel dislike)

put off: He keeps asking her to go out with him, but she keeps **putting** him **off**. (To cancel or postpone an appointment with someone)

put on: Despite her hurt feelings she **put on** a smiling face. (To pretend have a particular quality, appearance, feeling, behavior, etc)

put on: She is the only one in the family who is **putting on** excess weight. (To add to one's weight)

put on: She **put** a pair of faded jeans and a sweater **on** before she went outside. (To wear clothes)

put on: I thought she was **putting** me **on** when she said she's taking me out for dinner. (To cause someone to believe something that is not true)

put on: I will not **put** money **on** that horse. (To risk a sum of money on an outcome of a race, game, etc)

put on: He had to suddenly **put on** the brakes to try to avoid hitting the dog. (To bring something into operation or use)

put on: The airline is **putting on** extra flights for the sporting event. (To add)

put on: They are **putting on** a firework display to celebrate the ceremonial occasion. (To organize a public event)

put out: The firefighters took hours to **put out** the huge fire. (To extinguish)

put through: John's parents managed to **put** him and his siblings **through** university. (To pay for someone's education)

put through: The group of tourists was **put through** a terrible two-day ordeal. (To cause someone to undergo an unpleasant experience)

put through: She **put** me **through** to a wrong person. (To connect someone by telephone to another person)

put through: Ask the receptionist to **put** your call **through** to my room. (To transfer a telephone call from one person to another person)

put to: After the speeches were delivered, we were allowed to **put** questions **to** the speakers. (To present something for consideration or discussion)

put to: I **put it to** you that you have been lying about how you spend the company's money. (To challenge someone to deny the truth of an allegation or statement)

put up: Despite being an underdog, the team **put up** an outstanding performance. (To display considerable skill in a contest)

put up: Where are we going to **put up** for the weekend at the resort when all the hotels are fully booked? (To temporarily provide lodging for someone)

put up: They are **putting up** a bus terminus north of the city where the wasteland is. (To build)

put up: He managed to persuade his friend to **put up** the money for the venture. (To make money available in advance for a particular purpose)

put up: They **put up** a monument to the firefighters who lost their lives. (To erect)

put up: The party is **putting up** six female candidates in the general election. (To nominate)

put up: Election posters were **put up** all over the city. (To place something prominently so that it may readily be seen)

put up: A wealthy uncle has **put up** bail for him. (To make payment for the release of an accused person)

put up: We lost our way and had to **put up** at a cave for the night. (To stay somewhere)

put up to: He has been playing truant from school lately, and we think someone must have **put him up** to it. (To encourage someone to act in a wrong way)

put up with: He is not going to **put up with** his nagging wife any longer. (To be subjected to a bad or unpleasant situation that is continuing for a long time)

read into: You are **reading** too much **into** her remarks; she probably didn't mean it. (To assign a meaning to someone's words that they just don't have)

read out: He **read out** a list of names of those who died in the disaster. (To read aloud)

read through/over: I **read through** the passage for him and discovered some mistakes. (To read from beginning to end)

read up: Let's **read up** on the plumbing in the manual before we do anything. (To find out information by reading)

reason with: I tried for days to reason with her but she wouldn't listen. (To urge or persuade by giving good reasons)

reckon in: If you **reckon in** the prohibitive cost of repairs, it seems worthwhile to buy a new one. (To include something in a calculation)

reckon on: We didn't **reckon on** hiring more staff. (To expect)

reckon with: He made a report against them, and now they have the police to **reckon with**. (To have someone powerful or something difficult to deal with)

reckon with: They **reckoned without** the problem of lack of funds. (To fail to take into account)

relate to: He is unable to **relate to** older people. (To understand and share the feelings of another person)

relate to: He doesn't relate well to his peers. (To have a friendly relationship with someone)

rely on/upon: This landlocked country has to **rely on** its eastern neighbor for its import and export. (To depend on)

rely on: You can safely **rely on** his judgment. (To trust someone)

remark on: Her friends at the party **remarked on** her outfit. (To pass comment)

remind of: The song **reminds** him **of** his mates in his prison days. (To make someone remember of someone else)

remind of: How often do you look at your watch to **remind** you **of** the time? (To make someone remember of something)

report back: He **reported back** that the violence had escalated. (To bring or send back an account of something, as a journalist or reporter does)

report to: We were told to **report** to the new manager tomorrow. (To be responsible to someone at the workplace)

rest on: The future of the company **rests** solely **on** consumers' demand. (To depend)

rest on: His eyes **rested on** the young girl sitting alone in the corner. (To look steadily and intently)

rest with: The final decision to or not to release the hostages **rests with** the leader. (To have the responsibility to do something)

resulted from his own negligence. (To be caused by something)

result in: The accident **resulted in** the loss of his left leg. (To finish with)

ring back: She said she would **ring back** and that was ten hours ago. (To return a telephone call)

ring in: The boss **rang in** to inform he had taken the day off. (To call one's workplace by telephone)

ring in: They never fail to **ring in** the New Year with a brilliant firework display. (To mark the start of something new)

ring off: After a long conversation, we agreed to **ring off**. (To end a telephone call)

ring out: A scream **rang out** from the house across the road in the middle of the night. (To be loud and clear)

ring up: The new cashier **rang up** the wrong amount. (To use a cash register to record an amount)

ring up: Someone **rang up** the fire station to report a fire. (To call someone or some place by telephone)

run across: I **ran across** my ex and her lover this morning. (To find or meet by chance)

run after: He is always **running after** girls with long hair. (To seek the attention of someone with the intention of getting romantically involved)

run after: He **ran after** her to return a set of keys which she dropped. (To catch someone up for a purpose)

run against: He intends to **run against** his father in the by-election. (To compete for something, especially a position of power)

run against: While swimming across the river, we soon found ourselves **running against** strong current. (To encounter something unexpectedly)

run along: The children were told to **run along** so that the two adults could carry on with their conversation. (To tell someone, especially children to go away)

run around: At your age, you shouldn't be **running around** like that. (To busy oneself doing many different things)

run away: The husband **ran away** from his domineering wife. (To leave secretly from someone or some place)

run away with: She **ran away with** two gold medals in this year's swimming competition. (To win easily)

run away with: This is the second time he **ran away with** a neighbour's wife. (To leave secretly with someone)

run down: A car **ran down** a pedestrian while being chased by a patrol car. (To hit and knock down someone or something with a vehicle)

run down: She often **runs herself down** as she feels she's unable to deal with her life. (To represent someone as being of little worth; to criticize unfairly)

run down: The police have finally **run down** the leader of the drug traffickers in his new hideout. (To trace and capture someone)

run down: They are **running down** their ostrich farm as the demand for ostrich meat and eggs has fallen. (To reduce the size, resources, etc of something)

run down: We have to **run down** the list of names to make sure no one is excluded. (To examine something in details; to go over)

run down: The clock has stopped working; it's very probable its batteries have **run down**. (To lose power)

run into: He lost control of his car and **ran it into** a bus. (To use a vehicle to hit someone or something by accident)

run into: We **ran into** financial difficulties six months after we started the business. (To experience a difficulty)

run into: This morning I **ran into** an old colleague. (To meet by chance)

run into: His wealth is likely to **run into** seven figures in a few years. (To amount to)

run off: Her husband **ran off** with her sister. (To run away secretly to get married)

run off: He **ran off** after getting her pregnant. (To run away from someone)

run off: The new machine can **run off** fifty copies in a minute. (To print or to duplicate)

run off: She joined a new gym to **run off** her excess pounds. (To shed the extra weight)

run off with: He **ran off with** a huge sum of his employer's money. (To secretly escape or to leave hurriedly to avoid arrest)

run on: The lecture became more boring when it **ran on** for another hour. (To continue longer than is expected)

run on: The professor claimed to have invented a car that **ran on** seawater. (To be powered by something)

run out: She felt like screaming at him when her patience **ran out**. (To be used up)

run out: Our operating licence **runs out** at the end of the year. (To come to the end of the period of validity; to expire)

run out of: We can't post our letters now as we have **run out of** stamps. (To use up)

run out of: We are **running out of** funds at the moment, so we are not going on holiday. (To become used up)

run out on: She deeply regrets **running out on** her parents a few months ago.

run over: His dog died shortly after it was **run over** by a taxi. (To knock down and pass over someone or something by a vehicle)

run over: Let's **run over** the tables and figures in the report before we leave for the meeting. (To review)

run over: Someone left the tap on and the water **ran over**. (To overflow)

run over: The meeting has **run over** by nearly an hour; shall we continue tomorrow? (To exceed the expected ending time)

run through: Let's **run through** the solutions to the exercises again. (To go over something)

run through: She ran through my essay for me and discovered some spelling mistakes. (To examine something)

run to: How could a bill for a minor repair to my car **run to** a hundred dollars? (To reach a particular amount or level)

run up: We **ran up** a very large hotel bill. (To increase in amount or number)

run up: With his new machine, the tailor can **run up** a piece of clothing within hours. (To make something, especially clothes, hurriedly)

run up against: Construction of a chemical plant had **run up against** growing local opposition. (To unexpectedly meet or be faced with difficulty)

rush around: We **rushed around** informing all the members of the last-minute cancellation. (To act with urgent haste)

rush into: John begins to regret **rushing into** that high-risk venture without careful thought. (To get involved without prior consideration)

rush out: The manufacturer is **rushing out** the novelties for the festive season. (To quickly produce and distribute something)

save on: We don't turn on a light if we don't need it to **save on** electricity. (To not use something so as to avoid paying for it)

save up: We are trying to **save up** for our overseas holiday. (To set aside money for future use)

scare away: A supposedly haunted scene near my house **scared** many people **away** from the place. (To frighten someone away)

scare away: The farmer set up big scarecrows to **scare** birds **away**. (To keep something away by frightening them)

scare into: The cult leader **scared** the members **into** following his instructions. (To frighten or threaten someone into doing something)

scare off: The new tax **scares off** many would-be investors. (To make someone feel less confident or sure about doing something)

scare up: We have to **scare up** something to eat the night before someone come to our rescue. (To obtain something in spite of difficulties)

scrape along: With my first job, I had to **scrape along** on my small weekly wage. (To earn just enough money to live on)

scrape by: She lost her husband, so the family had to **scrape by** on her meager earnings. (To get by)

scrape in: He **scraped in** by a slim majority to become president of the club. (To just make it)

scrape through: I just **scraped through** my exams. (To just pass or achieve something)

scrape up: She **scraped up** enough money to pay off her father's gambling debts. (To bring together with difficulty a number or quantity of something)

see about: One of us has to **see about** getting enough drinks for the party. (To deal with)

see about: Let the doctor **see about** the pain on your leg instead of just worrying about it. (To attend to)

see after: He asked me to **see after** his hamsters while he is overseas. (To take care of)

see in: The movie was supposed to be funny, but I couldn't **see** the humour **in** it. (To see a quality in something)

see in: We can **see** an outgoing personality **in** him. (To see a quality in someone)

see in: Her parents couldn't understand what she **saw in** him. (To see something in someone)

see of: We have **seen** very little **of** each other since her transfer to the headquarters in the city. (To spend time socially together with someone)

see off: He was very happy **see** his mother-in-law **off** at the airport. (To bid someone farewell at a particular place such as airport, railway station, etc)

see off: His job is to **see off** unwelcome intruders. (To send an uninvited person away)

see out: There were no one to **see** us **out** when we left the office. (To accompany a guest to the door when he/she is leaving)

see out: We **saw out** the entire firework display in spite of the light drizzle. (To remain until the end of an event, etc)

see through: They are determined to **see** the whole project **through**. (To get on with a task until it is completed)

see through: I need some money to **see** me **through** until I get another job. (To support someone through a difficult time)

see through: We **saw through** his cunning act almost immediately. (To realize the truth of something that is deceiving)

see to: When I was staying with them, her parents **saw to** all my needs. (To attend to)

see to: The local council intends to **see to** it that no one gets away with littering the beach with bottles and cans. (To deal with)

sell off: I had to **sell off** my antique furniture to pay for my medical treatment. (To raise money to meet one's need)

sell off: He **sold off** his luxury yacht to the highest bidder. (To sell something at a reduced price)

sell out: They have **sold out** of all the units of the new computer model. (To sell one's supply of goods or materials)

sell out: The latest batch of the book is completely **sold out**. (To sell an entire stock of something)

sell out: Fellow gang members had **sold him out**. (To betray someone)

sell out: He **sold out** to the other side. (To abandon one's principles)

sell up: The family **sold up** and settled permanently in another country. (To sell all of one's possessions)

send away: She was **sent away** to live with her grandparents in her early teens. (To send someone to another place)

send back: The letter was delivered to a wrong address and was **sent back** to the post office. (To return to the sender)

send down: He was not **sent down** as he was found innocent of the crime. (To imprison someone)

send down: The two students were **sent down** from their university for unacceptable behavior. (To expel)

send for: Someone has already **sent for** an ambulance for the accident victim. (To request to come)

send for: She **sent for** a free sample of the shampoo as advertised. (To request or order by post)

send in: When negotiation with the hostage-takers failed, the police **sent in** the snipers. (To involve someone in a difficult situation)

send off: He was **sent off** for kicking another player's backside. (To compel someone, especially a player to leave the field for violation of the rules)

send off: We **sent off** a letter of application and are still waiting for a reply. (To cause something to be delivered by post)

send off: The mother **sends** the kids **off** to school each morning. (To move someone to another place)

send on: The report is **sent on** to the Attorney General for further action. (To deliver something to someone so that they can deal with it)

serve out: He was released without having to **serve out** the full sentence because of good behavior. (To spend a period in prison)

serve out: She **served out** the homemade apple pie. (To present food or drink to each of the people or guests present)

set about: We **set about** cleaning up the whole house after the flood. (To begin to deal with something)

set about: The police **set about** gathering evidence in the house where the murder took place. (To start to do something in a determined way)

set about: The gang **set about** him with their punches. (To attack someone)

set against: The increases in our salaries have to be **set against** the rising cost of living. (To offset something against another)

set against: The dispute over inheritance has **set** sibling **against** sibling. (To cause someone to be in conflict with another)

set apart: It is her diligence in her studies that **sets** her **apart** from her siblings. (To display a quality that separates someone from other people)

set aside: Every month we **set aside** a portion of our salaries for the purchase of a house. (To reserve something for a particular purpose)

set aside: We **set aside** an hour each day to do the yoga together. (To reserve something for a particular purpose)

set aside: The High Court **set aside** his conviction. (To declare invalid)

set aside: We are going to persuade the two sides to **set aside** their differences. (To reconcile)

set back: The raining season will **set back** the completion of the building project. (To delay the progress of something)

set back: The house renovation has **set us back** quite a bit. (To cost considerably)

set by: We must **set** money **by** in case it is urgently needed sometime in the future. (To keep something for future use)

set down: I woke up and **set down** in detail the dream I just had. (To record in writing)

set down: The taxi driver **set us down** at a wrong cinema. (To let someone get out of a vehicle)

set forth: Together, they **set forth** for an unknown destination. (To begin a journey)

set forth: She **set forth** her ideas of controlling human mind in her latest book. (To express in writing)

set in: Global warming has **set in** and with it more problems will arise. (To begin to happen and seem likely to continue)

set off: A police spokesman said the bomb was **set off** using a remote control. (To cause (bomb) to explode)

set off: To ensure maximum security, any little noise can **set off** the alarm. ((To cause (alarm) to go off)

set off: The family is **setting off** for the Far East. (To begin a journey)

set off: An angry argument between rival fans **set off** a violent disturbance. (To cause to happen)

set on: He has vicious dogs ready to be **set on** those who trespass on his property. (To use an animal or get someone to attack someone else)

set on/upon: He was **set upon** while walking home alone. (To be violently attacked)

set out: The brothers **set out** on a journey across central Asia. (To start a journey)

set out: Police investigations revealed she deliberately **set out** to murder her husband's lover. (To intend to do something)

set out: They **set out** as a group to uncover the truth about the haunted castle. (To undertake to do something)

set out: Every evening along the street, the traders **set out** their wares for sale. (To arrange and display for sale, exhibition, etc)

set out: He **set out** to break the world's record of becoming the oldest bullfighter. (To aim or attempt to do something)

set out: The document **set out** clear guidelines on the use of chemicals in food production. (To specify precisely about something)

set to: We **set to**, and completed the work well before the deadline. (To begin doing something in a vigorous and determined way)

set up: Jack and Jill have **set up** a business selling rabbit food. (To establish a business, organization, institution, etc)

set up: They **set up** an investment fund to provide money for their retirement. (To establish)

set up: Owning highly successful businesses has **set** the father and son **up** for life. (To be provided with enough money to last one's lifetime)

set up: A good sleep has **set him up** for the day of long distance driving. (To give someone the health or energy needed to do something)

set up: He claimed he was **set up** when customs officers discovered some drug in his bag. (To make someone who is innocent seem guilty)

set up: He **sets** himself **up** as a leading authority on termites. (To lay claim to being a particular person)

set up: Following the escape of a prisoner, police **set up** road blocks round the surrounding area. (To erect something)

set up: The company is **setting up** a new system of stock control in the new year. (To organize and implement something)

settle down: She hopes to **settle down** before the age of 30, and have a family. (To start to live a steady life)

settle down: He felt he wasn't yet ready to **settle down**. (To start to live a steady life)

settle down: She **settled down** for a quiet doze on the sofa. (To become composed)

settle down: It didn't take her long to **settle down** in her new office environment. (To adapt)

settle for: The dress of her favourite colour is out of stock, and she **settled for** a blue one. (To accept something that is less than the exact thing that you want)

settle for: They were prepared to **settle for** a draw, knowing that their opponent was very difficult to play against. (To accept less than what you really want)

settle in/into: The kids **settled** happily **into** their new school. (To become used to a place)

settle on: They have not **settled on** the date for their marriage. (To decide or agree on something)

settle on: He drew up a will to **settle** a yearly sum **on** each of his children. (To transfer money or property to someone)

settle up: Let's **settle up** and leave this bar for supper. (To pay money owed or due)

shoot down: The rebels **shot down** a few villagers who they claimed were government agents. (To kill or injure someone by firing a gun at them)

shoot down: Our antiaircraft gun **shot down** six enemy aircraft. (To bring down something by shooting it)

shoot down: The proposal was unanimously **shot down** in the meeting. (To strongly oppose)

shoot for: The team is training hard as it **shoots for** a place in the final stage. (To strive for a goal)

shoot off: The rival gang members stopped the fight and **shot off** when informed that the police were approaching. (To run quickly away)

shoot out: The bank guards and the armed robbers **shot it out** in front of the bank. (To shoot at each other)

shoot up: Prices of most kinds of baby food have **shot up**. (To increase sharply)

shoot up: Their children have **shot up** and are now taller than their parents. (To grow quickly in size, height, etc)

shoot up: That the house was severely **shot up** was clearly evident as its walls were heavily riddled with bullet holes. (To be full of bullet holes)

shoot up: They would often gathered together in the abandoned house to **shoot up**. (To introduce a drug into the body with a hypodermic syringe)

show around/round: The general manager **showed** the businessmen **around** the assembly plant. (To guide someone around a place to view something)

show off: She keeps herself in shape and never hesitates to **show off** her body shape. (To display with excessive pride and for admiration)

show off: Little Tim **showed off** his new toys to his friends. (To display with excessive pride and for admiration)

show off: People find him annoying as he always **shows off** to them. (To behave in a way that is designed to impress)

show out: After each job interview, there's someone to **show** the applicant **out**. (To accompany someone, who is leaving, to the door)

show up: He has just **shown up** when he should have done so two hours ago. (To arrive)

show up: He liked to make appointments but never **showed up**. (To put in an appearance)

show up: Without make-up, her wrinkles clearly **showed up**. (To be visible)

show up: She vowed never to see him again for **showing her up**. (To cause someone to feel ashamed)

show up: Their decisive defeat **showed up** the team's weaknesses in defence and passing of the ball. (To demonstrate a fault in someone or something)

shut away: He used to **shut himself away** in his own research laboratory. (To hide away or to confine someone)

shut away: I remember she **shut away** those things in this locked drawer before she passed away. (To keep something out of reach of other people)

shut down: They had to **shut down** the factory two years ago. (To cease operation)

shut down: They had to **shut down** one of the twin engines when it malfunctioned. (To close down)

shut in: They **shut** the tranquilised tiger **in** a cage for removal to another part of the jungle. (To confine)

shut off: Mum always remembered to **shut off** the stove when she finished cooking. (To stop something from operating)

shut off: The electric iron **shuts off** by itself when it gets too hot. (To stop operating)

shut off: After his release from prison, he **shut himself off** from the rest of the world. (To be alone)

shut out: It's time to **shut** the dogs **out** of the house for the night. (To not allow the entry of someone or something into a place)

shut out: We have to do something to **shut out** the draught from coming in under the door. (To prevent something from entering a place)

shut up: She should **shut up** and listen what others have to say. (To make someone to stop talking)

shut up: No one is listening to what I'm saying, so I had better **shut up**. (To stop speaking)

shut up: Why do they **shut up** so early; now we can't get what we want. (To close shop when business finishes for the day)

shut up: He had to **shut up** and retire early on medical grounds. (To close a business permanently)

shut up: This is the tower where the king's suspected enemies were **shut up** for the rest of their lives. (To seclude someone from the outside world)

shut up: He virtually spent his whole life **shut up** in the laboratory doing what he had always been interested in. (To seclude oneself from the outside world)

sit around: On most weekends, we would **sit around** and talk about anything. (To pass time sitting and not doing anything useful)

sit back: He **sat back** in his chair and started to read the paper. (To have one's back resting comfortably against the back of a chair)

sit by: They accused him of **sitting by** when there had been a serious deterioration in his wife's mental condition. (To fail to give proper care or attention to someone or something; to refrain from taking action)

sit down: He stood up and let a pregnant lady **sit down**. (To take a seat)

sit in: Some of these people who **sit in** are foreign observers. (To be present but not participating)

sit in for: Another newsreader is **sitting in for** her this evening. (To act temporarily as a substitute)

sit on: They accused the departmental head of **sitting on** their applications. (To delay taking action to deal with something)

sit out: I **sat out** the television programme just to be with her. (To not take part in doing something)

sit out: We **sat out** the storm in a harbor before sailing again. (To wait until a bad situation ends)

sit through: Our boss delivered a lengthy boring speech and we had to **sit through** it. (To stay until the end of something that is unpleasant)

sit up: We would **sit up** and watch when there's a late football match on television. (To stop oneself from going to bed early)

sit up: His back is giving him great pain, so he can't **sit up** straight. (To sit with the backbone straight)

sit up: She is making good progress towards recovery as she can now **sit up** in the bed. (To get up from lying to sitting position)

sit up: Everyone **sat up** when he broke the latest news of a big bomb explosion in the city centre. (To pay sudden attention to something)

slip into: He **slipped into** his pyjama/pajama trousers and without shirt got into bed. (To put on clothes quickly)

slip into: Please wait while I **slip into** something more comfortable. (To put on clothes quickly)

slip off: Let's **slip off** our clothes and got into the bath together. (To take one's clothes off quickly)

slip off: He was to give a speech later, but he **slipped off** when no one was looking. (To move away quietly and carefully in order not to be seen or heard)

slip on: She **slipped on** a pair of gloves to do some gardening. (To put clothes on quickly)

slip out: I know I shouldn't have said it, but the words just **slipped out**. (To say something not consciously or intentionally)

slip out of: He **slipped out of** his robe and got into the swimming pool. (To take clothes off quickly)

slip up: The police **slipped up** and the wrong person was arrested. (To make a careless mistake)

slow down: The police roadblock had **slowed down** traffic to a big snarl-up. (To make or become slower)

slow down: I think you should **slow down** when you approach a bend. (To reduce speed of a vehicle)

slow down: We had to **slow down** as the path began to zigzag steeply uphill. (To reduce one's speed)

snap off: She stopped reading, **snapped off** the light and closed her eyes to sleep. (To turn off a light)

snap on: She **snapped on** the light when she entered the bedroom. (To turn on a light)

snap out of: It's unlike you to be so irritable; I wish you would **snap out of** it. (To get out of a bad mood)

snap up: Hordes of customers **snapped up** the bargains that were on offer. (To quickly acquire something because it is cheap or in short supply)

speak of: His belief that the law did not apply to him **spoke of** arrogance. (To indicate something exists)

speak of: I have to take this lowly job as I have no paper qualifications – none to **speak of**. (To indicate something is real)

speak out: The students **spoke out** against fraud and mismanagement in the university. (To voice protest about an issue)

speak to: The supervisor wants to **speak to** the two workers who fought in the canteen. (To talk to someone who has committed a wrong)

speak up: You are asking me to **speak up** when I am shouting into the phone. (To speak loudly)

speak up: Those at the back will have to **speak up**. (To speak loudly)

speak up: If you feel so strongly about it, you can **speak up** at the next meeting. (To speak without fear)

stamp out: The new government is determined to **stamp out** corruption. (To forcibly put an end to something)

stamp out: He **stamped out** the dying flame. (To put out)

stand against: Her daughter will be **standing against** her in the parliamentary election. (To be a candidate in an election)

stand around: The crowd just **stood around** waiting for the ambulance to arrive. (To stand somewhere and do nothing)

stand aside: He decided to **stand aside** and let a younger person take over. (To give up one's position)

stand by: There is only one ambulance **standing by** at this moment. (To be ready for action if needed)

stand by: She **stood by** what she said and would not retract her statement. (To maintain one's attitude towards an issue)

stand by: How could the world **stand by** and let this country go through a prolonged civil war. (To not get involved)

stand by: Family members and friends **stood by** him throughout his trial. (To remain loyal to or supportive of someone)

stand by: The collective decision has been made and every member has to **stand by** it. (To support and defend)

stand down: The witness **stood down** after giving oral testimony about the murder. (To leave the witness box)

stand down: He **stepped down** as Managing Director in favour of his eldest son. (To resign)

stand for: He is not going to **stand for** her personal insults much longer. (To put up with)

stand for: Many people know what 'IOU' **stands for** 'I owe you'. (To represent)

stand for: We have yet to know what the newly-formed party **stands for**. (To publicly support a particular cause or policy)

stand in: His two assistants **stand in** for him when he's on a foreign assignment. (To act as a substitute)

stand out: Your dyed orange hair will certainly make you **stand out** in any crowd. (To be easily noticeable)

stand out: Among the applicants, Julia **stood out** from the rest as the most qualified. (To be clearly better or the best)

stand out against: The local people are **standing out against** the dumping of toxic waste. (To continue opposing or supporting something)

stand up: He looks taller if he **stands up** straight. (To stand on one's feet)

stand up: The defence believed the charges were fabricated and would not **stand up** in court. (To stay valid)

stand up for: You should **stand up for** your rights as citizens of this country. (To do something in defence of)

stand up to: He wouldn't dare **stand up to** his female boss even though he knew he was right. (To strongly defend against)

stand up to: Can the boat that we built **stand up to** every weather condition at sea? (To remain undamaged or unaffected by)

start off: His father **started him off** as a management trainee in his company. (To begin doing something)

start off: He **started it off** by giving a brief account of how he became a public speaker. (To begin by doing something)

start off: We have to **start off** early in order to arrive there before dusk. (To set forth)

start on: The first coat of paint has thoroughly dried; we can now **start on** the top coat. (To begin to deal with something)

start on at: She **started on at** me for not helping but only helping to eat. (To talk in a critical way)

start out: He **started out** as a lance corporal but now he is a sergeant. (To begin one's working life)

start over: Your summary is full of mistakes; I'll **start over** with you. (To redo from the beginning)

start up: I think we have to **start up** a different business; this one is failing. (To start an undertaking)

start up: The residents are **starting up** a vigilante group to patrol the neighbourhood. (To organize something)

start up: We had to call in the serviceman as the machine wouldn't **start up** this morning. (To become operational)

tear apart: The vultures **tore** the carcass **apart**. (To violently pull something into pieces)

tear apart: The civil war threatens to **tear** the country **apart**. (To split)

tear apart: It **tore** her **apart** to see so many child victims of terminal diseases in a single ward. (To upset terribly)

tear at: The puppies **tore at** the slipper. (To pull or attack violently)

tear away: Once he's on the video game, it's hard to **tear him away** from it. (To leave or remove oneself unwillingly)

tear down: Several houses were **torn down** to make way for the new highway. (To demolish)

tear into: I said she might be wrong and she **tore into** me. (To criticize strongly)

tear off: I wasted no time in **tearing** my clothes **off** to take a shower. (To remove one's clothes hurriedly)

tear up: She **tore up** the letter after reading it. (To rip into pieces)

tell against: He longed to be a basketball player, but his lack of height **told against** him. (To be a cause of a failure)

tell apart: It is difficult to **tell** the twin girls **apart**. (To recognize or identify as different)

tell off: John ran for a bus but bumped against a woman who **told him off**. (To express disapproval of someone)

tell on: Her constant worrying is beginning to **tell on** her face. (To have a noticeably bad effect on someone)

tell on: Are you not worried that he will **tell on** you? (To inform on another person to the authority, especially the police)

think back: When she **thinks back**, she feels very unlucky to have fallen as badly as she did. (To bring back the memory of something that happened in the past)

think of: She doesn't **think** very highly **of** her new daughter-in-law. (To have an opinion of someone)

think of: What did you **think of** the film? (To have an opinion of something)

think of: I have just **thought of** a way to make easy money. (To come up with a new idea or plan)

think of: I recall correctly; she lives at number 11, but I can't **think of** the street. (To remember something)

think of: He often **thinks of** others, not only of himself. (To have thoughtfulness towards others)

think out: Jack was the one who **thought out** the whole operation. (To mentally and carefully plan something)

think over: Jillian prefers to **think it over** before deciding on his proposal. (To think carefully about something)

think through: Facing the choice of an overseas assignment or losing his job, George needed some time to **think it through**. (To consider carefully)

think up: It was Paul who **thought up** the idea of a jumble sale to raise more money. (To invent something)

throw away: He is not **throwing away** those ten pairs of worn out shoes yet. (To get rid of something that is useless)

throw away: He chose to be a backpacker and **threw away** a chance to go to a university. (To fail to make use of an opportunity, advantage, etc)

throw in: We decided to buy the big desk with a table lamp **thrown in**. (To add something with no additional charge to something else that is purchased)

throw in: All eyes were drawn to the one who **threw in** a careless remark while the conversation was proceeding. (To add something while something else is progressing)

throw off: If only you could **throw off** all your negative thoughts, you wouldn't feel the way you do. (To rid oneself of something)

throw off: Each day on arriving home, this couch potato uncle of his **throws off** his jacket and sits down to watch television. (To quickly remove a piece of clothing)

throw off: Can the bright moon **throw off** enough light for reading? (To produce something in large amount)

throw off: It was only after two weeks that grandma **threw off** her cold. (To get rid of)

throw off: She **threw** the stalker **off** by blending into the crowd. (To break free from someone or something that following you)

throw open: The race was **thrown open** to more competitors when the age limit of participants was lowered. (To make something more accessible)

throw out: Dad refused to **throw out** the old books and magazines that cluttered the lounge. (To get rid of something that is unwanted)

throw out: The court **threw out** the case due to lack of evidence. (To dismiss)

throw out: The student was **thrown out** of school for unacceptable behavior. (To expel)

throw out: The treatment plant is **throwing out** raw sewage directly into the river. (To discharge)

throw over: She promised to never **throw him over**, but she broke the promise after one year. (To abandon someone)

throw together: A sudden rainfall caused them not to dine out, but to **throw** something **together** for dinner. (To make something quickly without planning or preparation)

throw together: Jack and Jill believed fate **threw** them **together** when as strangers they sat beside each other and began a relationship. (To be brought into a relationship by chance)

throw up: Bob, as usual, **threw up** after he had overeaten. (To vomit)

throw up: Halfway through her election campaign, she **threw up** her candidacy. (To abandon or give up)

throw up: The introduction of the new regulations is likely to **throw up** much controversy. (To produce)

tie down: They were **tied down** by having to work twelve hours a day. (To restrict someone's freedom)

tie in: It was a disaster when the two events didn't **tie in** when they were supposed to. (To connect one thing with another)

tie in with: The concert will **tie in with** the festival of dance taking place the same weekend. (To bring different things into a relationship)

tie up: Someone **tied** all the flowers **up** in one big bunch. (To fasten)

tie up: The accident **tied up** traffic for hours. (To delay or block the progress of something)

tie up: Most of her cash is **tied up** in real estate investments. (To make money not readily accessible by putting it in property, bond, share, etc)

tie up: The burglars **tied him up** before ransacking the house. (To restrain someone by binding their hands and feet or binding them to something)

tie up: He was **tied up** in a meeting when I called. (To keep someone busy so that they are unavailable to do anything else)

touch at: Our ship **touched at** Cape Town for a few hours. (To call briefly at a port)

touch down: The big crowd cheered when the spacecraft **touched down** safely. (To come or bring down to the ground)

touch in: His painting is almost finished; he's **touching in** some small details to improve on it. (To mark slightly with a brush, pencil, colour, etc)

touch off: The build-up of gas **touched off** a series of small explosions. (To cause something to explode)

touch off: The book **touched off** a storm of controversy. (To cause an action or a process to begin)

touch on: In his lecture on the subject, he **touched on** the writer. (To deal briefly with something else when speaking or writing)

touch up: She **touched up** her face before meeting him. (To make minor improvements)

try for: They **tried** very hard **for** an equalizing goal in the second half. (To make an attempt at achieving something)

try on: She **tried** it **on** but it didn't fit her. (To put on an item of clothing to see if it fits or suits)

try out: They **tried** her **out** for the supporting role in the comedy film. (To undergo a competitive qualifying test)

try out: When you are at the seaside resort, don't forget to **try out** the seafood dishes. (To test to see if you like it)

turn against: His supporters **turned against** him when he defected to the opposition party. (To disagree with or become hostile to someone or something)

turn around: A new general manager was appointed to **turn around** the ailing company. (To transform an unsuccessful business into a successful one)

turn away: They **turned** a group of visitors **away** as it was closing time. (To refuse entry to someone)

turn away: The slow service of the restaurant **turned away** potential customers. (To force someone to go somewhere else)

turn away: When I saw the blood at the accident scene, I **turned away**. (To move your face so that you are not looking at the same thing)

turn back: We had better **turn back** as the sea is getting too rough for sailing in a small boat. (To go back in the direction one has come from)

turn down: She **turned down** his proposal for the tenth time. (To reject)

turn down: How many times do I have to tell you to **turn down** the radio? (To lower the volume, heat, etc)

turn in: Someone **turned** my lost passport **in** to the police. (To hand something over to someone)

turn in: It's rather late; it's time we **turned in**. (To go to bed)

turn in: A gang member **turned** the leader **in** to the police. (To inform on)

turn in: This is the first quarter that the new company is expected to **turn in** a profit. (To make a return)

turn in: He was forced to **turn in** his letter of resignation, failing which he would be sacked. (To hand in)

turn into: There was loud applause when the magician **turned** a carrot **into** a rabbit. (To change something into something else)

turn into: The fishing village has been **turned into** a seaside resort. (To transform a place)

turn off: His arrogance really **turned** her **off**. (To repel or make repelled)

turn off: We **turned off** the highway and went down a bumpy road to reach our destination. (To leave one road and enter another)

turn off: When you **turn off** the tap, you do it clockwise. (To stop something from operating)

turn on: Girls with long hair really **turn me on**. (To excite or become excited, especially sexually)

turn on: It's nearly dark already; why are you still not **turning on** your car light? (To cause something to begin operating)

turn on: Why **turn on** him when he has nothing to do with it? (To attack someone)

turn out: It **turned out** that the butler was the one who committed the murder. (To discover something previously unknown, or unexpectedly)

turn out: An estimated ten thousand people **turned out** for the fireworks display. (To assemble as for a public event)

turn out: The burglar who stole the diamond **turned out** to be the police inspector. (To be found out)

turn out: The district has the highest number of people in the country **turning out** to vote. (To take part or to attend)

turn out: With the new machine, they are able to **turn out** 500 packets per hour. (To produce something through a manufacturing process)

turn out: Initially, none of us believed his story which **turned out** to be true. (To result in or have a particular outcome)

turn over: The abandoned baby was **turned over** to the welfare department. (To transfer someone or something to someone else)

turn over: We think his new business is **turning over** at least a few thousand dollars a month. (To make an amount of money in a given period)

turn over: If you are not watching, we are **turning over** to the other channel. (To switch to another television station or channel)

turn over: He couldn't get to sleep as he kept **turning** the thought **over** in his mind. (To think about something)

turn to: She **turned to** drugs to get over her depression. (To seek help from something)

turn to: If you **turn to** page 123, you will find the next page missing. (To look for a page in a book)

turn to: She **turned to** counseling for her depression. (To go to someone for advice)

turn up: A woman who was reported missing a few weeks ago **turned up** at the press office. (To appear suddenly or unexpectedly)

turn up: The police combed the entire area, but **turned up** no clues to the murder. (To find something)

turn up: Less than half of the invited guests **turned up** for the event. (To be present publicly; to arrive)

turn up: He missed the appointment as something that required his urgent attention **turned up**. (To occur unexpectedly)

turn up: Don't **turn up** the volume on the television; I want to take a nap. (To increase the level of something such as heat, sound, light, etc)

stay behind: We like to **stay behind** in the office after five o'clock for a nice chat. (To not leave a place after others have left)

stay in: I'm **staying in** tonight to finish some office work. (To not go out of one's house)

stay on: She failed her exam, and had to **stay on** at school for another year. (To continue to do something, or be in a place after others have left)

stay out: He sometimes **stays out** late for a drink with colleagues after work. (To stay outdoors and not come home, or come home late)

stay out of: I was told to **stay out** of their arguments and mind my own business. (To not get oneself involved in something)

stay up: Tonight we are **staying up** to watch a football match on television. (To not go to bed at the usual time)

step aside: There were calls for him to **step aside** when his health began to fail. (To leave one's office or position)

step down: The minister who was involved in a sex scandal was forced to **step down**. (To resign from an important job or high position)

step forward: A third candidate has **stepped forward** in the leadership contest. (To offer one's help or services)

step in: The leaders had to **step in** to resolve long-standing disputes between the two factions of the party. (To become involved in order to help)

step out: I need to **step out** for some fresh air. (To go outside for a short time)

step up: The police are **stepping up** surveillance of the building used by a suspected criminal. (To increase)

stick around: Let's **stick around** until he arrives, then we will go for a meal. (To remain somewhere for some time)

stick at: We decided to **stick at** it until we completed the 5,000-piece jigsaw. (To continue doing something in spite of difficulty)

stick by: You must **stick by** your promise to help us to get this done. (To honour one's promise, obligation, etc)

stick by: The children promised to **stick by** their single mother through thick and thin. (To continue to support someone in spite of their having problems)

stick out: He donned a party hat with a feather **sticking out** of it. (To protrude from something)

stick out: She **stuck out** her tongue as requested by the doctor. (To hold something out towards someone)

stick out: With his towering height, he certainly **sticks out** in a crowd. (To be easily noticeable)

stick it out: If we just **stick it out**, I am sure we will find a way out. (To tolerate something until the end)

stick to: **Stick to** the point, otherwise our meeting will never end. (To do or use the same thing and not change to something else)

stick to: Every time you make a promise, you never **stick to** it. (To honour one's words)

stick together: They have always **stuck together** since their immigration here. (To be mutually loyal)

stick up: A stranger tried to **stick him up**, but he fought him off. (To rob someone)

stick up for: Will you **stick up for** me? There are too many of them. (To support or defend)

stick with: I have **stuck with** the same barber for the past seven years. (To continue with someone or something)

stop by: Will you be **stopping by** the supermarket on your way home? (To make a brief visit to a place)

stop by: Jack **stopped by** Jill's with a present to wish her a happy birthday. (To make a brief visit to someone)

stop in: He **stopped in** at a florist's on his way to visit her. (To visit a place briefly)

stop in: She decided to **stop in** to do her laundry. (To stay in)

stop off: We **stopped off** in one of the coastal resorts for a day before leaving the country. (To make a short visit to a place on the way to one's destination)

stop over: They **stopped over** in Moscow for a night on the way to London. (To stay for a brief period before continuing one's journey)

strike back: The guerrillas **struck back** by killing two soldiers for a bomb attack the previous day. (To make an attack in return for an attack made by the opposing side)

strike down: He **struck** the man **down** with a single blow of his iron rod. (To hit someone hard)

strike down: He was **struck down** by polio at an early age. (To kill or make someone unable to act in the normal way)

strike off: He should be **struck off** the roll of solicitors. (To remove from the official record, list, etc)

strike on: We **struck on** the idea of being freelance journalists while chatting in a train. (To discover or think of something, especially by chance)

strike out: Her name was **struck out** as she had withdrawn from the competition. (To draw a line through something in a document to show it is not applicable)

strike out: She left the quartet to **strike out** on her own. (To start to do something independently)

strike up: He finally found the courage to **strike up** a conversation with her. (To begin a friendship or conversation with someone)

strike up: An expectant crowd gathered as the band was about to **strike up**. (To start to play)

swarm with: On weekends the zoo is **swarmed with** visitors. (To be crowded with people)

swarm with: The carrion of an unknown animal was **swarming with** flies. (To be overrun with something)

switch off: She seldom **switches off** the computer when she has finished using it. (To use a switch to turn off light, television, etc)

switch on: Some cars have already **switched on** their lights before it gets dark. (To use a switch to turn on light, television, etc)

switch over: They are going to **switch over** to the new teaching method. (To replace a way of doing something with another)

switch over: Why do you keep **switching over** to another channel? (To change from one television station, etc to another)

take aback: I was **taken aback** by what he said. (To surprise or shock someone)

take after: Jenny is the only daughter who certainly **takes after** her mother. (To have a similar appearance to or qualities of someone; to resemble)

take against: She's **taken against** him for some unknown reason. (To take a dislike to someone)

take apart: He **took** the shelves **apart** for removal. (To separate into parts)

take back: OK, now don't you curse me anymore; I **take back** what I said. (To withdraw a statement or accusation as untrue or unjustified)

take back: Looking at her photo **took me back** to our shared childhood. (To remember a time in the past)

take back: I **took** it **back** and exchanged for a new one. (To return a purchased item that is not satisfactory)

take back: He pleaded with his wife to **take him back**. (To allow return of someone)

take down: Please **take down** what I'm going to say. (To put down in writing)

take down: Someone **took down** the getaway car number and gave it to the police. (To write down something)

take down: You should **take** the ceiling fan **down**; it's no longer working. (To move something towards a lower place or position)

take for: He is likely to **take** your silence **for** consent. (To think wrongly about something)

take for: They must have **taken** me **for** an idiot to want me to go along with their absurd idea. (To consider in a particular way)

take in: Jill was **taken in** by the company's false claims about its products. (To deceive or be deceived)

take in: The retirement home **took in** another elderly today. (To provide shelter to someone)

take in: We couldn't **take in** all the speaker said. (To understand)

take in: To calculate the cost of the meal at that restaurant, we have to **take in** the tip. (To include)

take in: She will not **take** the pants **in**; she will buy a new pair. (To alter the seams of an item of clothing to make it tighter or smaller)

take in: He was **taken in** for questioning as a potential suspect. (To keep someone in official custody)

take in: The large windows enabled us to **take in** the fine views of the surrounding countryside. (To view)

take off: We were late and the plane **took off** without us. (To head into the air)

take off: He **took off** his goggles which were steaming up and plunged into the pool. (To remove)

take off: His new business didn't **take off** until after the third year of operation. (To become successful)

take off: He **took** a month **off** to get married. (To spend time away from work)

take off: Everyone was looking for her, but she had already **taken off**. (To leave quickly without telling anyone)

take off: The product was **taken off** the production line due to falling demand. (To withdraw or discontinue)

take off: **Take** ten dollars **off** the total which you owe me and I'll pay you the balance. (To deduct)

take on: After a new coat of paint, the old house **takes on** a new look. (To come to possess a particular quality, appearance, meaning, etc)

take on: The company **took on** more workers as it was then set for major expansion. (To employ someone)

take on: His promotion means he has to **take on** new responsibilities. (To undertake)

take on: The challenger will **take on** the reigning heavyweight boxing champion tonight. (To compete with or fight someone)

take out: He often **takes** his family **out** for a meal at the same restaurant. (To bring someone to somewhere to do something)

take out: One of the police snipers **took out** the deranged man holding a hostage. (To kill or destroy)

take out: He had his tonsils **taken out** when he was a child. (To remove or extract)

take out: She **took out** an injunction to prevent the press publishing the information. (To secure a legal application)

take out on: It's your own fault; why **take it out on** the children? (To vent one's anger or frustration on someone)

take out on : We think the boss doesn't like him; she's always **taking it out on** him. (To vent one's anger or frustration on someone)

take over: When you **take over** the driving, don't sound the horn unnecessarily. (To assume control of something)

take round: The guide **took us round** the leisure complex. (To show the way to others)

take through: The Manager **took** the new workers **through** the production process again to familiarize them with it. (To explain something to someone)

take to: Jim **took to** excessive drinking when his wife left him. (To fall into a habit)

take to: He **took to** the guitar at an early age. (To develop an aptitude for something)

take to: She soon **took to** her mother-in-law's cooking. (To develop a liking for something)

take to: As the fighting raged, the refugees **took to** the border. (To seek safety)

take up: Since my retirement, I've **taken up** stargazing. (To become interested in something)

take up: She has time now to **take up** cycling. (To develop an interest in a sporting activity)

take up: If I don't **take up** the challenge, they will likely say I have chickened out. (To accept a challenge)

take up: He will **take up** his post as chief executive. (To fill a position or post)

take up: The piles of books which are **taking up** too much space on the floor. (To use up space, time, or attention)

take up: Some of them are going to **take up** the matter with the boss. (To continue a course of action)

take up with: He's **taken up with** his new neighbour's kids. (To become friendly with someone)

take upon: Mark **took it upon** himself to paint the whole house. (To place responsibility for something on oneself)

talk around/round: She just doesn't agree with the seriousness of the problem; one of you has to **talk her around**. (To persuade someone to accept a point of view)

talk at: We tried to tell her what's wrong, but she wouldn't listen; she was **talking at** us. (To say something without regard for a reply or reaction)

talk back: This kid will never hesitate to **talk back** to her mother. (To make a reply that does not show proper respect)

talk down. Mike often **talked down** the good things Betty did. (To belittle)

talk down to: It's wrong to **talk down to** them like that; they are cleverer than you think. (To speak condescendingly to someone)

talk into: I didn't want to get involved in the robbery, but he **talked me into** joining them. (To persuade)

talk out: We thought it was just a misunderstanding and asked them to **talk it out**. (To discuss in order to settle or find a solution to something)

talk out of: She **talked him out of** seeking work overseas. (To persuade someone not to take a course of action)

talk out of: She wanted to marry him but her parents **talked her out of** it. (To persuade someone not to do something)

talk over: I think we'd better **talk it over** before we decide to buy it. (To discuss something thoroughly before taking an action)

talk over: The Liverpool manager managed to **talk** the two players of rival teams **over** to his side. (To succeed in persuading someone)

talk round/around: He **talked round** the issue but gave no indication of how to tackle it. (To speak indirectly about something)

talk through: I must **talk this through** with you two as there are a few things you need to know. (To discuss thoroughly)

talk up: We have to **talk up** this new product so that people can see the usefulness of it. (To speak favourably or enthusiastically about something)

use up: Someone has **used up** all my disks. (To finish the whole of something)

vouch for: His proposers **vouched for** his honesty and capability. (To give personal guarantee of the truth or accuracy of something)

wait around: A group of stargazers **waited around** for the sky to clear; instead, black clouds spread across the sky. (To idle somewhere while waiting for someone or something to happen)

wait behind: We **waited behind** to help clean up after the farewell party broke up. (To remain somewhere after other people have left)

wait for: They **waited** in vain **for** the rain to stop. (To look forward to something)

wait for: The fans **waited** all morning at the airport **for** the television star to arrive. (To look forward to someone)

wait on: She **waits on** customers with utmost courtesy and patience. (To serve food and drink at a place (e.g. restaurant) where people pay to eat and/or drink)

wait out: We had drinks and light meals at a café while **waiting out** the stormy weather. (To wait for something to end)

wait up: Sean **waits up** for her every night. (To stay up while expecting someone or something to happen)

wash away: The police believed the blood stains were **washed away** by the murderer. (To remove by using water)

wash down: I don't need a lot of water to **wash** these two tiny pills **down**. (To make something easier to swallow by drinking water)

wash down: The two of us **washed down** the spiral staircase this morning. (To wash something with water from top to bottom)

wash off: These stubborn dark stains will not **wash off**. (To remove something from a surface by cleaning with water)

wash out: The match was completely **washed out** by the unexpected weather. (To cause an event to be cancelled or interrupted because of rain)

wash out: I used the new detergent, but the curry stain wouldn't **wash out**. (To remove by washing)

wash up: As we are in a hurry to go, let's help her **wash up** the dishes. (To wash after a meal the items used in serving and eating of the meal)

wash up: The children were told to **wash up** before they sat down for dinner. (To wash one's hands and face)

wash up: This is not the first time that a carcass of a whale is **washed up** the beach. (To bring something up on to the shore)

watch for: **Watch for** the sign that points down to the lane leading to the waterfall. (To look out for something)

watch out for: While there, you had better **watch out for** pickpocket. (To be careful of something)

watch over: The woman is **watching over** her very sick husband in the ward. (To guard or take care of someone or something)

work against: Your inability to speak well is likely to **work against** you when you enter politics. (To harm one's chances of success)

work at: I am not very good at writing short stories, but I am **working at** it. (To make great efforts to achieve something)

work into: You have to **work** the cocoa **into** the eggs. (To blend)

work off: He always uses swearing words whenever he tries to **work off** his anxiety. (To get rid of something by doing something else)

work off: She took up cycling to **work off** her excess pounds. (To get rid of something by doing something else that is energetic or requires effort)

work on: We spent weeks **working on** the defaced sculpture. (To repair or restore something)

work on: The participants **work on** their stamina by doing aerobic exercises. (To improve on something)

work on: He has been **working on** his dad to give him the money for a bicycle. (To persuade)

work out: The burglars have **worked out** a way to sneak into the whisky warehouse. (To plan in detail)

work out: We have to **work out** the cost of living in the city before we think of working there. (To calculate)

work out: How did the repair bill **work out** to such a huge amount? (To amount to a total)

work out: She **works out** one hour aerobics twice a week. (To do physical exercise)

work out: The researchers still haven't **worked out** what caused this new disease. (To solve something)

work out: We hope this new business of ours will **work out** well successfully. (To develop in a good way)

work out: We couldn't **work out** why he reacted in that way. (To understand the reasons for someone's behavior)

work out: It all **worked out** in the end in spite of all the difficulties. (To become successful)

work up: I certainly **worked up** a big appetite after a marathon jog. (To develop a physical state through an activity or effort)

work up: Being strongly suspicious of her husband, she has **worked herself up** into extreme jealousy. (To rouse the strong feeling of someone)

work up to: He hasn't the courage to dive from the top diving board, but he is

working up to it. (To gradually prepare oneself for something difficult)

write back: I've written her ten letters in the past weeks, but she has not **written back**.

(To reply to a letter)

write down: You don't have a good memory, so you'd better **write down** whenever you need to. (To put down in writing)

write down: The value of the machinery was significantly **written down** in the latest estimation. (To reduce the value, price, etc of something such as items of stock or goods)

write in: Hundreds of viewers **wrote in** to complain after the show. (To write to express an opinion or request for information)

write into: The other party was disputing about something that was not **written into** the contract. (To include something in a document)

write off: The bank was forced to **write off** some of the loans when the borrowers couldn't be found. (To fail to recover a debt and cancel it as a bad debt)

write off: They had to **write off** some of the machinery after they were destroyed in the fire. (To acknowledge an asset has no value)

write off: His car badly damaged in an accident had to be **written off**. (To be damaged beyond repair)

write off: You shouldn't **write** yourself **off** as a good writer so quickly. (To regard someone or something as insignificant or useless)

write out: He couldn't speak due to a bad sore throat, so he **wrote** it **out** instead. (To express in writing)

write out: She **wrote out** a cheque for a wrong amount. (To give information on a document)

write up: Everyone of us had to **write up** a report on our individual findings for the meeting. (To give an account of something in writing)

yield to: The victim's family **yielded to** the kidnappers' demand despite the huge ransom. (To submit to pressure or demands)

PHRASES AND IDIOMS

Phrases and Idioms	Meaning
acid – the acid test	Way to determine the quality or workability of something.
across - across the board	Applicable to all.
ado - without further ado	Without wasting any more time.
alive - alive and kicking	Still existing and very active.
all – all at once	All done together at the same time.
all – all in all	Take into account every part; on the whole
all – all or nothing	Either done completely or in the exact way, or nothing; no compromise.
all - all the same	In spite of that.
all – it's all go	Buzzing with activity.
argue – argue the toss	To argue against a decision already made.
arm - arm in arm	With arms linked.
arm - up in arms	Enraged and protesting vigorously.
arm – with open arms	Receiving with great affection or enthusiasm
bag - bag and baggage	One's personal possessions.
bag - bag of bones	Used to refer to a very thin person or an animal.
balance - balance of payments	The difference in total value between payments for import of and earnings from export of goods and services.
balance - balance of trade	The difference in total value between a country's import and export of goods, excluding services.
baptism - baptism of fire	One's first experience in an activity which is often difficult and painful.

bare - bare one's soul	To make known one's previously unknown facts or feelings.
bare - the bare bones	The essential parts of something.
bat - bat one's eyelashes	To make rapid opening and closing of one's eyes.
bated - with bated breath	In anxiety and suspense.
belt - below the belt	Unfair; breaking the rules.
belt – tighten one's belt	Cut down on spending.
belt – under one's belt	To have achieved something or gained considerable experience.
bend – bend over backwards	To be helpful with someone's wishes or demands.
bend – bend someone's ear	To talk at length with someone.
bend – bend the rules	Do what normally is not allowed
bend – on bended knee	Requesting someone seriously to do something.
best – all the best	An expression of good wishes.
better – go one better	Outdo someone else.
better – one had better	One would find it more advisable or advantageous to do.
better – one's better half	One's spouse
beyond - beyond the sea	In a foreign country; abroad.
bit - a bit part	A minor and insignificant acting part in a film.
bit - a bit previous	Before the due time.
bit – bit by bit	Gradually.
bit - do one's bit	To contribute one's service or do one's share of the work.
bite - bite the bullet	Forced to perform an unpleasant or difficult task.
bite - bite the dust	To die, fail or be defeated.
bite - bite your tongue	Refrain oneself from saying something.

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

black – black and white (in)	In writing so that it's clearly stated, not doubtful.
black - in the black	To have money in one's account.
blaze – a trail	Lay a path through unknown territory; to be the first to develop something new.
blessing - a mixed blessing	A situation that has both advantages and disadvantages
blessing – blessing indisguise	An initial misfortune that later produces good results.
blood - in cold blood	In a deliberate and merciless way.
blood - in one's blood	Firmly established in one's character.
blow – blow a fuse	Lose one's temper.
blow – blow one's mind	To excite or impress someone very strongly.
blow – blow one's nose	To clean one's nose by blowing through it into a cloth or piece of tissue paper.
blow – blow one's top	Lose one's temper.
blow – blow the whistle (on)	To inform an authority or expose publicly someone's wrongful act or something that is wrong.
blow - come to blows	To start hitting each other or a fight.
blue – blue eyed boy	Someone who is treated with special favour.
blue – blue with cold	Extremely cold.
blue – boys in blue	The police.
boat - rock the boat	Disturb an existing situation.
boat - the same boat (in)	Be in the same difficult situation as someone else.
body – body and soul	Completely.
body – body of water	A large area of water such as a lake.
bone – bone of contention	Cause of argument or disagreement.
bone - make no bones (about)	To not hesitate about doing or saying something.

book – by the book (go)	To observe exactly the rules and instructions.
book - someone's good book (in)	It means that someone is pleased with or approves of someone else.
born - not born yesterday	Not easily deceived or gullible.
bound - know no bounds	Have no limits.
bound – out of bounds	Outside of allowed area of play.
brain - pick someone's brains	To get information from someone who knows a lot.
break – break new ground	Venture into new sphere of activity; uncover new information.
break – break of day	Dawn.
break – break one's word	To not do what one has promised.
break – break the ice	To initiate a conversation between strangers.
break - make the break	To end a relationship.
breath – waste one's breath	To speak without getting the message through.
breath – hold one's breath	To cease breathing to see what is going to happen.
breath – out of breath	To experience difficulty in breathing after some vigorous exercises.
breath – under one's breath	To say in a low voice so that no one can hear.
breeze – be a breeze	To be something that can be done or dealt with ease.
bridge – bridge the gap	To narrow the difference between two things.
bright – bright and early	Very early in the morning.
bright - the bright lights	The kind of life in big cities that attract people.
broke – go for broke	Risk all that one has in a determined attempt to achieve something.
brother - brothers in arms	Soldiers who have been in combat together in the same war.

LORD HENFIELD'S HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL ENGLISH

buck – a fast buck	Money that is quickly and easily earned.
buck – pass the buck	Shift the blame or responsibility to someone else.
bumper – bumper-to-bumper	(Traffic) very close together and moving slowly.
burn – burn one's boats/bridges	Do something that can't be reversed.
bury – bury the hatchet	End a quarrel or conflict and be reconciled.
business – business is business	Used to mean making profit overrides everything else.
business – like nobody's business	Exceptional.
butterfly – butterflies in one's stomach	An unpleasant sensation in one's stomach when one is nervous.
buyer - a buyer's market	Situation in which supply of goods and shares is more than demand, and prices are low.
by – by and by	Before long; soon.
by – by and large	On the whole.
by – by the by	By the way; incidentally.
call – call attention to	To divert people's attention to something.
call – call into question	To express doubt about something.
call – call of nature	A need to urinate or defecate.
call – call one's shots	To predict one's course of action.
call – call someone's bluff	To challenge someone to carry out their threat, so as to expose it as an empty threat
call – call the shots	In a position to decide or initiate action.
call - the call of	A strong appeal of a place, an occupation, etc. that draws someone.
can – can of worms	An awkward situation that is likely to give rise to many problems and prove embarrassing.

cap – cap in hand	Seeking a favour in a humble way.
capture - capture someone's heart	To be greatly attracted to someone.
card - on the cards	Likely to happen.
carry - carry oneself well	To move and behave in an appropriate manner.
carry – carry the day	To be triumphal.
carry - get carried away	To lose one's self-control.
cash – cash and carry	A shop where goods are paid for in full and carried away by the buyer
cast - be cast away	To be stranded on a shore or island after a shipwreck.
cast - be cast down	Feel depressed and discouraged.
catch – catch one's breath	To momentarily stop breathing in shock, surprise or fear.
catch – catch sight of	To suddenly notice someone or something.
catch – catch someone's eye	Attract someone's attention through eye contact; to be noticed by someone.
cause – cause and effect	An action and its effect.
cause – make common cause	Join together to attain a particular goal.
chalk – chalk it up	Put it to one's credit.
chance – by any chance	Possibly or as is true.
chance – stand a chance	Have the likelihood to succeed.
chance – take a chance	Run a risk of things not happening or of danger.
chance – take one's chance	Do something risky with the hope of success.
change – change of air	In a different place or climate that is usually better.
change – change one's tune	To react or change one's opinion after something has happened.

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change – for a change	An experience which is different from before and is usually better.
charge – free of charge	No payment required.
charge – in charge of	Having control or command of.
charge – on a charge	Accused of a criminal offence.
charge – put in charge	Entrust someone with power to control or supervise.
cheap - on the cheap	Incur less cost than is needed
cheek – cheek by jowl	Very close together.
cheek – cheek to cheek	(dancing) heads close together.
chew – chew the fat	To talk in a friendly way.
chicken - she's no chicken	She is no longer young.
chop - get the chop	To lose one's job; to cancel something, e.g. a building project.
chord - strike a chord	To express an agreeable opinion or acceptable idea.
circle - come full circle	Return to a past position or situation.
circumstance - in suspicious circumstances	Involving foul play.
circumstance - under/in no circumstances	To say that something must not be allowed to happen no matter what.
circumstance - under/in the circumstances	At the given situation.
circumstance – victim of circumstance	Someone who is unfavourably affected in a difficult situation.
claim - lay claim to	To state one's right to or ownership of something.
clean – a clean break	An end to a relationship; freeing oneself from a situation.

clean - a clean slate/sheet	Free from misbehaviour, mistakes made or a goal scored by the rival team.
clear - clear the air	To reduce a tense situation by discussing in a calm manner.
clear – clear the decks	To do something in order to prepare for some other things.
clear -in the clear	Not under suspicion or guilty.
clip – at a clip	At once.
clip – clip someone's wings	To curb someone's aspirations.
clock - against the clock	Not having much time left.
close - a close shave	Narrow escape from an accident or danger.
clutch – clutch at straws	Make a desperate attempt at salvaging a hopeless situation.
coast – coast is clear	Safe to do something without the risk of being noticed or caught.
cock – cock a snook	To express contempt at.
cold – cold hard cash	Paper money and coins as opposed to cheques or credit cards.
cold – in cold blood	In a cruel and merciless way.
cold – the cold shoulder	Display of one's unfriendliness
come – come of age	To attain adulthood.
come – come off it	Used to express one's disbelief.
come – come on strong	To show a confident and forceful personality.
come – come to mind	(of a thought, idea, etc.) suggest itself.
come – come to nothing	To produce no effect or result.
come – come to pass	To happen eventually.
come – come up dry	To become unsuccessful.

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come – come what may	No matter what happens.
commit – commit to paper	To write down.
common – in common with	To be in the same way as someone else.
common – the common good	Something shared by two or more parties and acts as a basis for further interaction.
common – the common touch	The ability to interact with the ordinary people.
concern - a going concern	A business that is still operating and making a profit.
conquer – conquer somebody's heart	To make that somebody fall in love with one.
conscience – in all conscience	In fairness; by any reasonable standard.
conscience – on one's conscience	Feeling guilty about something.
conscience – prisoner of conscience	A person who is detained or imprisoned because of his or her political or religious beliefs.
cook – cook somebody's goose	To spoil a person's plans.
cool – a cool million	Large amount that someone can easily earn.
cool – cool one's heels	To be kept waiting
cool - keep one's cool	Maintain a calm attitude in a tense situation.
cool – lose one's cool	To be unable to remain calm in a difficult situation.
corner – around the corner	Very near; imminent; approaching.
corner – corner the market	To control the supply of a commodity.
corner – fight one's corner	To defend one's position.
corner – in someone's corner	To offer support and encouragement.
corner – turn a corner	To begin to show improvement.
corridors – corridors of power	Place where crucial decisions of administration are made.

cost – cost a bomb	Cost a lot of money.
cost – at all costs	Regardless of the obstacles that one has to overcome.
cost – cost someone dear	To cause someone to suffer a huge loss.
count - count one's blessings	Used to tell someone how lucky they are and be grateful for what they have.
count - count the cost	To examine the effect of one's terrible mistake.
count - count the days	To be anxiously waiting for the days to pass.
cover - cover one's back	To refrain from acts that will invite criticism.
cover - cover one's tracks	To conceal evidence of one's movement.
crack – crack of dawn	Daybreak
cradle - the cradle of	Place in which something important began or was nurtured.
cream - the cream of	The most outstanding group of people.
credit - line of credit	Amount of credit allowed to a borrower
crime – crime doesn't pay	Used to mean the criminal will sooner or later be brought to justice.
crime - crime of passion	A crime committed in a fit of sexual jealousy.
critical – the critical list	A list of hospital patients who are extremely ill or seriously injured and at risk of death
cross - at cross purposes	Mutual misunderstanding due to each side referring to a different matter
cross – cross a cheque	To draw or print two parallel lines across a cheque so that it can only be paid into a bank account.
cross - cross one's fingers	Cross one finger with another as a sign of hope that a good or the wished-for thing will happen.
cross - cross one's heart	Make a sign of the cross over one's heart to emphasise what one is saying is true.

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cross – cross one's mind	Occur in one's thought.
cross - cross swords with	To have an argument or dispute with someone.
cross - cross the floor	Walk over to join the opposing side in Parliament.
cruel - a cruel blow	A tragic event that is so unfair and occurs so suddenly.
cry - in full cry	In hot pursuit
cudgel – cudgel one's brain	To think very hard about something.
cudgel - take up cudgels	To start to fight for or defend something one strongly believes in.
curry - curry favour with	To bring oneself into favour with someone by flattering or pleasing them.
cut - a cut above	Noticeably better than others.
cut - cut a dash	To appear attractive when one puts on particular clothes.
cut - cut and dried	(agreement, decision, etc.) reached and cannot be changed.
cut - cut and paste	In computing, remove text from one location to place it on another.
cut - cut and run	Withdraw from a situation that becomes difficult rather than attempt to cope with it.
cut - cut and thrust	Uncontrolled and rough environment.
cut - cut both ways	Have both good and bad sides
cut - cut in line	To jump queue.
cut - cut it out	Used to tell someone to stop saying or doing something.
cut - cut no ice	Will not be able to bring about change in someone.
cut - cut somebody free/loose	To set someone free by cutting the rope that binds them.

cut - cut somebody short	To stop someone from finishing what they are saying.
cut - cut someone dead	To deliberately ignore someone.
cut - cut the cord	To not continue depending on someone.
cut - cut the crap	Used to tell someone to stop wasting time on minor details and concentrate on the important ones.
cut - cut the mustard	To be good enough to reach certain standard.
cute - get cute with	To be mischievous.
dagger – at daggers drawn	With mutual hatred.
damnedest - do one's damnedest	To try extremely hard to succeed or obtain something.
damsel – damsel in distress	A young woman who needs to be rescued.
dark – in the dark	In a state of ignorance.
day – day of reckoning	The time when someone has to face up to the consequences of their actions.
dead - be dead meat	To be in serious trouble.
dead – dead and buried	Over and finished, no longer worth considering.
dead – dead man's shoes	Succeeding someone or inheriting his property is only possible on his death.
dead – dead on time	At the stated or agreed time.
deal - it's a deal	Used to express one's agreement to something.
deal - strike a deal	Mutually agree to do something for each other.
death – at death's door	So ill that one may die soon.
death - on death row	To be kept in the area of a prison where prisoners awaiting execution are confined.
declare – declare an interest	To make known publicly that one holds an interest in something.

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decline – someone's declining years	Last years of one's life when one experiences diminishing physical strength and good health.
delusion – delusions of grandeur	Possessing a very strong sense of self-importance.
dice – dice with death	To place oneself in a rather risky position.
dish – dish the dirt	To engage in casual conversation or idle gossip about other people.
divide – divide and rule	To maintain control over people, and provoke dissent between them to ensure they do not rise in opposition.
do – do or die	To persist in a course of action even if the outcome is death.
do - dos and don'ts	The things that one must and must not do in a given situation.
do – that does it!	Used to show that one can tolerate no more.
dog - a dog's age	A very long time.
dog - dog eat dog	A situation in which people compete ruthlessly.
dog – going to the dogs	Deteriorating with no possibility of improving.
doing – take some doing	Involving hard work or much effort.
domino - the domino effect	A situation in which one event triggers similar events around it to happen successively.
done - a done deal	An agreed proposal or a completed business deal.
done - the done thing	To be socially acceptable.
dot – on the dot	Punctually.
dot – to a dot	Exactly; precisely.
dotage – in one's dotage	In one's old age.
double - at/on the double	Very quickly.
drag – drag one's feet	To be deliberately slow to do something.

drain - down the drain	Entirely wasted.
draw - draw a blank	To be unsuccessful, especially after searching for something such as evidence, etc.
draw – draw someone's eye	To make someone notice something.
dress – dress a salad	Add a mixture of additional ingredients onto a salad.
dress – dressed to kill	Quality clothes worn to make a striking impression.
drop – drop a bombshell	To suddenly reveal a shocking piece of news.
drop – drop a clanger/brick	To pass an embarrassing remark in a social environment.
drop – drop a hint	To convey something in an indirect way by what one says or does.
drop – drop one's guard	To cease keeping careful watch for possible danger.
drown – drown one's sorrows	To forget one's problems by drinking a lot of alcohol.
drum – drum one's fingers	To unconsciously display one's anxiety.
due – in due course	At the appropriate time in the future.
due – pay one's dues	Make regular payments to; fulfil one's obligations.
duff - up the duff	Pregnant.
dust – dust and ashes	Something that causes great disappointment.
early - an early grave	Dying too soon.
early – it's early days	Early in time for something to happen, etc.
earn – earn one's keep	To do enough work to justify what one receives in return.
earth – go to earth	Go into hiding.
eat – eat humble pie	Admit one's mistake and offer an apology.
eat - eat one's words	Retract one's statement, usually under pressure.
economy – economies of scale	To economic benefit of production of an item in large quantities.

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effect - to that effect	Getting the desired outcome or meaning.
empty – empty your bowels	To defecate.
end – be the end	Be the limit of what one can tolerate.
end - days on end	Lasting many days.
end – end in itself (an)	Something that one really wants to do, and not for other reasons.
end – end it all	To kill own self; commit suicide.
end – end to end	Arrange things in a row with ends touching
end – in the end	Eventually; ultimately.
end – make ends meet	To live within one's means.
end - to that end	To aim at or achieve something.
end – to this end	For this purpose.
even - get even with	To inflict harm or insult on someone just as much as they have harmed or insulted you.
event - in any event	Used to emphasise that an event will happen besides others that may happen.
event - in the event	Used to emphasise what actually happened or might happen in a given situation.
ever – ever and anon	Occasionally; from time to time.
every – every now and again	Occasionally.
every – every now and then	Sometimes but not often.
every – every other	Each alternate item in a list of items.
every – every so often	Occasionally; sometimes.
every – every Tom, Dick, and Harry	Used to refer to ordinary people in general.
every – every which way	In all directions.

evil - the evil eye	A look from the evil eye according to old superstition is believed to cause considerable harm.
eye - an eye for an eye	Retaliation in kind as appropriate to deal with a wrong.
eye – be all eyes	Be watching eagerly and attentively
eye - catch someone's eye	To attract someone's attention.
eye – close one's eyes	To deliberately not notice something unpleasant.
eye – make eyes at	To look at someone with sexual interest.
eye – open someone's eyes	To make someone aware of something.
eye - the naked eye	Seeing without using a telescope, microscope, etc
eye – to my eye	In one's opinion with regards to how someone or something looks.
eyeball - eyeball to eyeball	Face to face with someone in a mutually angry or hostile way.
face – face the music	Accept the consequences of something one has done.
fact – facts of life	Information about sex.
fair - fair and square	Accurately; honestly and openly.
fair - fair's fair	Request for fair play or treatment, or a statement that something has been fair.
fair - fair-weather friend	A person whose friendship is not genuine, especially in times of crisis.
fair - the fair sex	Women.
faith – act of faith	An action demonstrating trust.
faith – breach of faith	Betrayal of trust; insincerity.
faith – in good faith	With intention to be honest; sincerity.
fall – fall foul of	To break a rule or law.

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fall – fall from grace	To stop being liked by others, especially those in authority.
fall – fall into line	To conform to what is required of someone.
fall – fall into place	To begin to become clear or make sense.
fall – fall short of	To be less than the amount or standard required.
fancy – take someone's fancy	Make something attractive or interesting to someone.
favour – in favour of	In support of or agree to something.
feather – feather in (one's) cap	An achievement that one should be proud of.
feel – feel the pinch	Experience difficulties, especially financial.
fiddle – play second fiddle (to)	To take a less important role.
fight – fight or flight	Instinctive response to a threatening situation.
fight – fight shy of	To avoid doing or becoming involved with something.
fill – fill someone's shoes	Substitute someone's role and perform it acceptably.
fill – fill the bill	To have the qualities suitable for a particular purpose.
find – find favour with	To be liked or approved of.
fine – one's finest hour	Time when someone experiences their greatest success.
fire – fire and brimstone	Refers to hell.
first – at first light	Dawn; daybreak.
first – first among equals	The most outstanding one.
first – first and foremost	The primary purpose of something.
first – first of all	Before doing anything else.
first –first things first	Dealing with things in or

flat – go flat against	To completely disregard or reject outright.
flesh – flesh and blood	Someone of one's own family.
flesh - put flesh on	To provide details so as to clarify.
floor – take the floor	To dance or speak at a social event, etc.
fly – fly a kite	To try out something new so as to test reaction.
flying - with flying colours	Very successfully.
follow – as follows	To present a list of something.
follow – follow suit	To do the same thing as someone has just done.
follow – follow the herd	To just blindly do what other people do.
foot - feet of clay	Someone whose faults are not easily known.
force – by force of	By means of.
force – come into force	Start to operate.
force – force of circumstance	External factors that influence one's decisions
force – force someone's hand	Exert pressure on someone to do something.
force – force the bidding	To deliberately and quickly drive up a price
force – force the issue	To pressure someone to make a hasty decision.
force – forces of darkness	Evil influences or the devil.
force – forces of nature	Natural forces such as the earthquakes, volcanoes, wind, etc.
fortune – a small fortune	A large amount of money.
fortune – soldier of fortune	A soldier who will fight in return for money; a mercenary.
French – take French leave	To absent oneself from work, etc. without permission.
full – full steam ahead	To proceed or do something energetically and speedily.
further - until further notice	Until one is notified again.

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garbage – garbage in, garbage out	Inferior quality input will produce low quality output.
gauntlet - run the gauntlet	Take whatever criticisms or attacks that come one's way.
get – get a life.	Used to tell someone that they are boring.
go – go for it	Put in all one's effort to get something.
go – go without saying	To be self-evident.
go - have a go	Make an attempt at something.
go – on the go	On the move all the time.
go – who goes there?	A sentry's challenge to someone to identify themselves.
goalpost – move the goalposts	Alter the rules in an unfair manner.
grade - make the grade	To accomplish what is required. Succeed.
grass – the grass roots	The ordinary people as opposed to the leaders in an organization.
grease - grease someone's palm	To bribe someone.
grease - like greased lightning	Extremely fast.
green - green with envy	Very envious or jealous
green - green-eyed monster	Jealousy.
green - have green fingers	Clever at growing plants.
grim – like/for grim death	With great determination.
grind - the daily grind	The monotonous work that one does every day.
grit – grit one's teeth	To persevere in one's efforts to overcome something difficult.
groan – moan and groan	Complain constantly.

guard – guard of honour	A group of soldiers assembled to ceremonially welcome an important visitor, usually a foreign head of state.
guard – lower your guard	Fail to give proper care or attention to.
guess - be anybody's guess	Something that no one knows but only guess at.
guest - be my guest	Used to express permission to someone to do what they have asked to do.
guest – guest of honour	The most important person invited to a special function.
gun – jump the gun	To act sooner than one should without considering the proper time to do it.
gutter – the gutter press	Newspapers engaging in sensationalism and considered as fit only for the gutter
hair - a hair's breath	A very small margin
half - half a mind (to)	Used when one is unsure about doing something.
hammer - hammer something home	To convey one's message across effectively by speaking intelligibly.
hammer - under the hammer	Be for sale at an auction.
hand - hand and hand	Be involved with
hand - hand in glove	In close cooperation with someone in an illegal activity.
hand - hand to mouth	With just enough money and food to survive on.
hand - hand-and-glove	Inseparable or on intimate terms.
hand – lend a hand	To help someone in doing something.
hand – out of hand	Out of control. Immediately; without thinking.
hang – hang your head	To look ashamed and guilty.
hard – be hard hit	Adversely affected by something.
hard - be hard on	To be too strict or harsh on someone.

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hard – be hard put	To have difficulty doing something.
hard - hard done by	To be treated in an unfair or harsh manner.
hard - hard luck story	A story told to gain sympathy.
hard - hard of hearing	Having difficulty in hearing.
hard – hard to take	Difficult to accept or believe.
hard - no hard feelings	No feelings of resentment.
hard – take something hard	Feel very unhappy or disappointed about something.
hard - the hard stuff	Strong alcoholic drink
hard – times are hard	Time when one has problems and difficulties.
head - a clear head	Being able to think clearly in a difficult situation.
head - a head for	An ability to tolerate something.
head - come to a head	Reach a crisis.
head – head over heels	Madly in love with something.
head – head will roll	Some people will be punished or dismissed.
head – keep one's head	Remain calm.
head – lose one's head	Lose self-control.
heart – break someone's heart	To make someone feel very sad.
heart – change of heart	Change in one's thinking.
heart – cross one's heart	Used to make a promise.
heart – from the heart	With the sincerest feeling.
heart – have the heart	Show pity; be merciful.
heart – heart and soul	With all one's affections.
heart – heart of gold	A kind or generous nature.
heart – heart-to-heart	Frank, sincere (talk)
heart – learn by heart	Learn by memorizing.
heart – one's heart's desire	Someone's greatest wish for something.

heart – open one's heart	To make known one's feelings or thoughts.
heart – take to heart	Take something seriously.
hearth – hearth and home	One's home and family.
hedge – hedge your bets	Avoid total loss by placing similar bets on the other side.
heel - take to (one's) heels	Run away quickly.
hell – hell for leather	At great speed.
hell – hell on earth	A place that is extremely unpleasant.
high – have high hopes	Confident of successful outcome.
high - high and dry	Left with nothing.
high – high and mighty	Feeling self-important; arrogant.
history – history repeats itself	There's a tendency for events to happen again in a similar way.
hit – hit rock bottom	To descend to the lowest level.
hit – hit it off	To become friends in a natural way.
hit – hit the bottle	To start to drink to excess.
hit – hit the jackpot	To win a huge amount of money.
hit – hit the road	Set forth on a journey
hold – hold a conversation	To get engaged in a conversation with someone.
hold – hold one's horses	To stop for some reason.
hold – hold one's own	To do something or succeed without help from anyone.
hold – hold the fort	To take over someone's responsibility while they are away.
hold – hold the line	To not yield; to wait until the other person is ready to answer one's telephone call.
hold – hold your fire	Used to order soldiers to cease firing.

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hold – no holds barred	Without any restrictions or rules.
holier – holier than-thou	Self-righteous.
home – home and dry	Having succeeded in getting something done.
honour - do the honours	To do things such as serve food or drink at a social occasion.
honour – in honour of	Used to show respect and admiration of someone.
honour – man of honour	A man of high moral standards.
honour – on one's honour	Under a moral duty to do something.
honour – on/upon my honour	Used to express one's sincerity.
hook - off the hook	No longer in a difficult situation.
hop – on the hop	Unprepared; busy.
hope – hope against hope	Hope for something that probably will not happen.
house – house of God	A church, a temple.
house – on the house	A drink or meal paid for by the bar, restaurant, etc. management.
human - the human touch	A close relationship of communication or understanding.
ice – on thin ice	In a risky situation.
idea - get the idea	To start to understand something
idea - have no idea	Have no knowledge of
idea - that's the idea	That's exactly right
ill – ill at ease	Feeling uncomfortable or embarrassed.
ill – speak ill of	Say something bad about someone.
immemorial – since/from time immemorial	Starting from a time in the distant past which people cannot now recall.

influence - under the influence	Affected by an effect or an imperceptible power exerted by someone or something that causes changes in conduct or the character.
ins – ins and outs	The details of a system, workings, etc.
inside – on the inside	Being able to provide internal information.
issue – die without issue	To die without having any children.
issue – take issue with	To dispute the truth or validity of.
itchy – have itchy feet	Have the desire to travel or go somewhere.
Jekyll – Jekyll and Hyde	A person having dual personalities, one good and one evil.
job – just the job	The very job that is wanted.
job – on the job	While doing work; being part of the work.
join – join forces	Combine efforts for a common purpose.
jump – jump a light	To drive past a red traffic light.
jump – jump for joy	To be very excited and happy.
jump – jump the gun	To begin something without proper planning.
jump – jump the queue	Move ahead of other people in a queue.
jump – jump to conclusions	To form a quick opinion without considering the facts.
key – in/out of key	In/not in agreement or harmony with.
kick – kick a habit	Stop doing something which one does habitually.
kick – kick one's heels	To be kept waiting for a long time.
kick – kick someone upstairs	Promote someone to an ostensibly higher and more influential position in a business.
kick – kick the bucket	Die.
killing - make a killing	To make a large profit in a short time.
kind – of a kind	Scarcely worthy of what is specified or described.

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kiss – kiss of death	A kindly act which produces negative outcome
kiss – kiss of life	Mouth-to-mouth resuscitation.
kiss – kiss someone's arse	To be excessively slavish or obedient to someone.
knife - under the knife	Having a surgery.
knock – knock it off	Used to tell someone to stop doing something.
know – know by heart	Have learned something by rote and now able to repeat it from memory.
know – know no bounds	Have no limits.
know – know one's onions	Be experienced in or knowledgeable about something.
know – know one's stuff	Be fully acquainted with something.
know – know the ropes	To have experience in or familiar with something.
know – know what's what	Have the necessary experience, ability or knowledge to do something successfully.
large - in large part/measure	Mostly; to a great extent.
latest - at the latest	No later than the time referred to.
law – law and order	A situation in which people are abiding by the law.
lead – lead someone astray	To influence someone to act or behave in a wrong way.
least – at the very least	At the minimum; adopting the most negative stance.
least – least of all	Not less than; if nothing else;
least – not in the least	Not at all.
lend – lend an/one's ear	listen sympathetically to someone.
lend – lend weight to	To put more value on something.
letter - to the letter	Pay close attention to every detail.

liberty – take liberties with	To conduct oneself in an improper manner towards; to deal with rules, writing, etc. without due consideration to facts.
liberty – take the liberty	To do something without permission.
lick – at a lick	Very fast.
lick – lick one's wounds	To think carefully and seriously about one's defeat or disappointment that has just happened.
lick – lick someone's boots	More than willing to serve or please others.
lie – lie in state	Display of an important deceased person's body in a public place for people to pay their last respect.
life – come to life	To become exciting, or lively; to start working again.
life – for dear life	Do whatever one can to escape death.
life – full of life	Very lively and happy.
life – larger than life	Someone who attracts a lot of attention due to an exceptional personal attribute they possess.
life - way of life	The way people choose to live their lives.
light – bring/come to light	To make or become known.
light – throw light on	To clarify things by providing more or new information.
line - along party line	Acting in accordance to the party one belongs to.
line - bring into line	To make to conform
line - fall into line	To conform to the way in which something is done.
line - in line with	In accordance with
line - line of vision	The direction in which an observer looks.
line - on the line	at serious risk, (job, etc.) likely to be lost.
line - out of line	Behaving unacceptably or inappropriately.
lip - pay lip service	express support without action to show it.

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lip - read one's lips	To listen carefully so as to understand what is said.
living - in living memory	That can still be remembered by people.
loiter – loiter with intent	Hang around a place with criminal intent.
long - at long last	Finally; after a long time
loose - on the loose	Having escaped from prison or cage.
lose – lose one's mind	To become insane.
lose – lose sight of	No longer able to see someone or something; to forget something.
lost – a lost cause	Something that is not likely to be achieved.
lost - be lost on	Refuse to appreciate or accept.
luck – just my luck	Used to express disappointment that something bad has happened to one.
luck – out of luck	Suffering misfortune; having bad luck.
luck – press one's luck	Take unnecessary risks.
luck – try one's luck	To attempt something difficult and hope it will succeed.
make – make away with	carry away secretly or illegally.
make – make or break	To be a decisive factor in the success or failure of something or someone.
man – a man's man	A man who moves around and engages with other men at social functions and in manly activities.
man – be man enough	be strong or brave enough
man – be someone's man	A man who satisfies fully someone's requirement.
man - man about town	A man who is socially active.
man - man and wife (be)	To be married.
man - man of God	A deeply religious man or a priest.
man - man of letters	A male writer.

man - man to man	In direct and frank engagement between two men.
man - man's best friend	A dog.
man - to a man	Without exception.
manner – all manner of	Many different kinds of.
many - a good many	Quite a lot
many – a great many	A fairly large number of.
many – one too many	To be drunk.
mark – leave/make its/a mark	Leave a permanent or significant impression.
mark – make one's mark	Attain fame or distinction.
mark – mark my words	Used to tell someone to be attentive to what one is saying.
mark – near/close to the mark	Almost accurate; almost on target.
mark – off/wide off the mark	Not correct or inaccurate.
mark – on your marks	Instruction to competitors to correctly position themselves to start a race.
marked - a marked man	Someone who is in danger of being harmed by his enemy.
marriage – marriage of convenience	Marriage for other reasons and not for love.
marry – marry a fortune	Marry a rich heiress.
marry – marry into money	Marry a wealthy person or someone from a wealthy family.
matter - matter of fact (a)	In reality; in fact.
matter - no matter what	One will do something regardless of what happens.
means – beyond one's means	More than one can afford.
means - by all means	Of course.
means – by any means	At all.

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means – by means of	By using something
means – by no means	Not at all.
means – man/woman of means	Man/woman who is rich.
means – within one's means	Not more than one can afford.
measure - for good measure	Additional input to what is already enough or required.
mend – mend one's fences	Make peace with someone whom one has offended.
mend – on the mend	Improving in one's health or a situation.
middle – the middle ground	Something which provides a basis for a discussion, negotiation, meeting, etc. to be carried out.
might – might is right	Used to say powerful people/countries are free from prosecution/retaliation and so can do what they like
mincemeat - make mincemeat of	To defeat someone totally.
mind – a close mind (have)	Not willing to consider new ideas.
mind – have in mind	Plan, intend
mind - have someone in mind	Thinking about someone.
mind - in/of two minds (be)	Unable to decide on something.
mind - mind over matter	The use of willpower to handle a difficult situation
mind - of one mind (be)	Decide unanimously or share the same opinion.
mind - of sound mind (be)	Posses the ability to think clearly and act responsibly.
mind - set your mind (on)	To finally decide to do something.
mind - to my mind	Used when expressing an opinion.
minute – any minute now	Very soon.
minute - by the minute	As time passes.

mirror - a mirror of	A clear idea of something
miss – Miss Right	The young woman who would make an ideal wife.
miss – miss the boat	Fail to seize an opportunity.
miss – miss the point	Fail to understand the main idea of what is being said.
moment – for the moment	For now; for the time being.
moment – have one's moments	There're times when things are better than other times.
moment – moment of truth	A time when an outcome of something is known.
moment – of the moment	At the current time.
moon – over the moon	Greatly delighted.
more – more and more	Increasingly.
more – more or less	Approximately.
mould - break the mould	To change something completely by doing things differently.
mouth – be all mouth	Not doing what one boastfully says one can do.
mouth – watch one's mouth	To be careful of what one says.
move - make a move	To leave a place; to take action to achieve something.
mover – movers and shakers	People who wield enormous power and influence.
much - a bit much	More than necessary; unfair or unreasonable.
much – not much of (a)	Not a good example of.
mug – a mug's game	Something that is likely to be unsuccessful
nail – on the nail	Prompt payment of one's debt.
name – call someone names	To verbally insult someone.
name – in name only	Does not really exist but officially it is claimed to exist.

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near – near at hand	Within easy reach; in the immediate future.
neck – neck and neck	Level in race, competition, etc.
nerve – bundle of nerves	A very tense or worried person.
nerve – have a/the nerve	To behave rudely or impudently towards someone.
nerve – lose one's nerve	Deprived of the ability to be calm and confident.
nerve – touch a raw nerve	Comment on something that someone is sensitive about.
nerve – war of nerves	Use of hostile propaganda to undermine morale.
never – never day die	Used to urge someone to refuse to despair or give up.
never – never you mind	Used to dissuade someone from asking about something.
next – next to nothing	Very little.
nine – nine days' wonder	Event, etc. that brings excitement for a short while.
none – none other than	Introducing the surprising someone.
none – none the wiser	Not knowing more at the end than at the beginning of something one does.
nook – nook and cranny	Every part of something or a place.
nothing – come to nothing	Wasted efforts with no effect or result to show.
nothing – have nothing on	Be not wearing anything; be naked.
nothing – nothing doing	Spoken when one refuses to do something.
nothing – nothing less than	Used to emphasise something that is especially relevant.
nothing – nothing to it	Not requiring much effort.
nothing – stop at nothing	Not deterred by anything; having or showing no compassion or morality.

nothing – think nothing of	To consider something as uninteresting or surprising.
now – now and again	From time to time.
now – now and then	Occasionally.
now – now now	To calm an angry or agitated person down.
nuts – nuts and bolts	The practical details.
nutshell – in a nutshell	Stating the main facts concisely.
odds – odds and ends	Various types of small items of low value
old – an old hand	Someone who has a lot of experience of something.
old – old wives' tale	A long held traditional belief that is now considered to be baseless.
old - the old country	One's country of birth and where one is no longer living in.
old – the old days	Times or a period in the past.
old – the old guard	The original or conservative members of an organization, club, party, etc.
one – one after another	One by one.
one – one and only	Someone who is known to all; unique.
one – one or two	A few, a small number of.
one - be as one	To agree about something.
one – one and all	Everyone.
one – one by one	Someone or something that moves singly in succession.
open - an open invitation	Easy accessibility to people to visit, to steal, etc.
open – an open mind	A mind accessible to new arguments or ideas.
open - be open with	Speak frankly to.
open – in open court	In a court of law that is open to the public.

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open – in the open	Outdoors.
open – the heavens opened	It began to rain heavily.
order – in order that	So that.
order – in order to	With the purpose of doing
order – in short order	Without delay; immediately.
order – out of order	No longer working/working properly.
other – one's other half	One's spouse.
other – the other place	The other world.
other – in other words	Used to make an idea, etc. easier to understand.
other – the other woman	A married man's mistress.
out – out and about	Go about one's routine.
out – out with it	Used to tell someone to say out what they are thinking.
out – out-and-out	Utter, complete
outside - an outside chance	A small possibility of something happening.
outside - at the outside	At the most.
outside - on the outside	The outward appearance of a person.
over – over against	Adjacent to; compare to; in contrast to.
over – over and above	In addition to.
over – over and out	Used to indicate one has finished transmitted a message.
over – over and over	Repeatedly.
over – over the hill	No longer young; past one's prime of life and beginning to decline.
over – over the moon	Every happy or delighted.
pace – keep pace with	Move or advance at the same rate.

pain - for one's pains	For one's efforts in doing something but not getting a fair return.
pain – on/under pain of	On/under punishment of.
pair - the happy pair	Newly married couple.
part – part and parcel	Essential part of
past - A shady past	A past that one had committed a criminal or immoral act and is best kept secret.
pay – pay one's respects	Show one's polite consideration by calling or visiting.
pay – pay one's way	To finance one's own cost or expenses.
payment – payment in kind	Using goods or services instead of money as settlement
peace – hold one's peace	Remain silent, even under provocation.
peace – keep the peace	To maintain law and order.
peace – make one's peace	Restore friendly relations with someone after a personal dispute.
peace – rest in peace	Used in funeral service as part of a prayer.
per - as per usual	As usual.
pick – pick a fight	Force a fight.
pick – pick a lock	Use something other than the key to open a lock.
pick – pick holes in	Criticize adversely; find fault with.
pick – pick one's nose	To remove mucus from one's nose with one's finger.
pick – pick one's teeth	To remove bits of food from one's teeth with something pointed.
pick – pick someone's pocket	To steal secretly from someone's pocket.
pity - for pity's sake	Used to show one's growing irritation.
plate – on a plate	Getting something without working for it.

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plate – on one's plate	Having so much to occupy one's time.
play – come into play	To have significant effect.
play – out of play	When a ball goes out of the allowed area of play.
play – play for time	To gain time by employing delaying tactics.
play – play it cool	To behave in a relaxed or unconcerned manner.
play – play it safe	Avoid taking unnecessary risks.
play – play on words	To make use of ambiguous words to amuse or confuse.
play – play second fiddle	Play a subordinate role.
play – play the fool	Acting in a silly way.
play – play with fire	Do something that could have serious consequences.
plunge – take the plunge	To finally commit oneself to doing something after much hesitation.
point - belabour the point	Discuss at length.
point - beside the point	Irrelevant; not important.
point – case in point	An example used to clarify the topic being discussed.
point – point the finger	To openly accuse, blame or implicate someone.
poke – poke fun at	Make fun of or ridicule someone.
pole - be poles apart	Entirely different from each other.
poor – the poor man's	An inferior or cheaper substitute for someone or something as mentioned.
pop - pop the question	To propose marriage to someone.
pot-luck - take pot-luck	Be willing to take or eat whatever is available.
pound – pound of flesh	Something that's one's entitled but which will make them to suffer to demand.

practice – practice makes perfect	Perfection comes from habitual doing of something.
premium – at a premium	Not readily available; at a higher than usual price.
press – go to press	To get something printed.
press – at the press	In the process of printing.
press – off the press	Printed; issued.
press – press the flesh	To shake hands with people
press – send to press	Send to be printed.
pressed – pressed for time	Not having enough time.
price – at any price	Regardless of the risk involved or what may happen.
prick – prick of conscience	Feeling of deep regret or guilt for a wrong committed.
print – appear in print	Have one's work published.
print – out of print	No longer available in printed form.
proportion – out of proportion	More than what it should be; exaggerated.
proportion – sense of proportion	The ability to judge the relative importance of things.
puck – pluck a pigeon	To rob a foolish or gullible person.
pull – pull one's face	Change one's facial expression to reflect one's feelings.
pull – pull one's punches	To be less forceful, harsh, etc. than one is capable.
pull – pull one's rank	Abuse one's senior position to exact obedience, etc.
pull – pull someone's leg	To playfully cause someone to believe something that is not true.
pull – pull the plug	Prevent something from continuing.
pure – pure and simple	Absolutely by itself, nothing short of.

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push - at a push	With difficulty but can be done.
push – push one's luck	To assume one will continue to be successful.
quite - not quite	Not completely or totally.
rack – rack and ruin	Deteriorate due to neglect.
raise – raise the dust	To cause a disturbance.
rank – rank and file	Ordinary members of an organization.
ransom - a king's ransom	A huge amount of money.
rate - at this rate	If things continue to happen in this way
raw – in the raw	In its realistic state; naked.
read - a good read	Something that people enjoy reading.
ready - at the ready	Available to put into immediate service.
record - for the record	For something to be recorded and remembered.
record – off/on the record	Not made/made as official record.
red - in the red	To have no money in one's account.
red – red letter day	A special day that makes you very happy.
red - the red planet	Mars
regard – in this regard	Connected with something mentioned previously or just said.
regard – with regard to	Referring to something one is speaking or writing about.
rein – take the reins	Take over the responsibility.
reinvent – reinvent the wheel	To waste time in devising what is already in existence.
respect – in respect of	Concerning; with reference to; in relation to.
respect – with respect to	Referring to.
rest – rest on oars	Rest after a spell of labour.
rest – rest one's case	End one's presentation of evidence in a court of law.

ride – be riding high	Successful and popular.
ride – ride herd on	Keep watch over.
ride – ride roughshod over	Treat someone without consideration of their feelings.
right – as of right	It is one's right.
right - right-hand man	An important assistant.
right – the right stuff	The necessary or required qualities.
rise – give rise to	Cause something to happen.
rise – on the rise	Increasing in value, success, prices, etc.
rise – rise and shine	Get out of bed early and quickly.
risk – risk one's neck	To do something that involves the possibility of being killed.
risk – run the risk	Expose to the possibility of something dangerous or unpleasant happening.
rock – on the rocks	Fraught with problems and is likely to fail.
rock – rock the boat	To disrupt the existing situation.
root - put down roots	To become settled in a place.
rope – know the ropes	Know all of something through experience
rough – a rough diamond	A person who is of good character but lacks good manners.
rough – in the rough	In a natural or difficult state
rough – rough and ready	Simple or crude but effective.
round – go the rounds	To pass from one person to another.
round – in round figures	Express exact numbers as the nearest whole numbers.
round – round of applause	Audience or people are clapping to show their appreciation of something.

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round – round someone up	To gather together a number of people
rub – rub one's hands	Indicate personal satisfaction with what one has done or what has happened.
rub – rub shoulders with	Come into contact with.
rule - as a rule	Usually the case; usually true.
rule - rule of law	Situation in which everyone is subject to and abides by the law.
rule - rule of thumb	A rough guide based on experience rather than theory.
rule - rule the roost	To be in control.
runner - do a runner	To flee the scene so as to escape from or avoid something.
running – in running order	Sequence in which events are arranged to take place.
running – in/out of the running	In/no longer in a contest.
rush – rush one's fences	Do something hurriedly
sad – sadder but wiser	Learn something after its effect has become clear or understood.
safety – safety in numbers	Used to mean less danger in a lot of animals, people, etc. being together.
salt - worth one's salt	Good at one's job.
same – same to you	May you have the same thing.
save – save one's breath	Not worth saying anything.
save – save one's skin	Look after one's own safety.
save – save the day	Solve a problem.
scene - behind the scenes	In secret away from public view.
scene – hit the scene	To arrive; appear.

scene – not one's scene	Not something someone is interested in.
score – on that score	Concerning something just mentioned.
score – settle a score	To inflict revenge on someone who has caused an injury or harm to oneself.
scrape - in a scrape	In difficulty.
scrape - scrape the barrel	Using the last, remaining, low quality of resources.
scratch - scratch a living	Manage with just enough to survive on.
scratch – scratch one's head	Be confused, seeking a solution.
scratch – scratch the surface	Deal with a matter but not thoroughly enough.
scratch - up to scratch	Good enough to meet a certain standard.
second - second to none	The best.
seller - a seller's market	Situation in which demand of goods and shares is more than supply, and prices are generally high.
sense – make sense of	To find or seek out the meaning of something
serve – serve a sentence	Spend a period of time in a prison.
serve – serve one's country	To fight for one's country.
serve – serve someone right	Someone who deserves the punishment or misfortune.
service - be of service	Be available to help if help is needed.
set – be set on	To be very determined about doing something.
shadow – shadow of death	Intense gloom or peril.
shelf - off the shelf	Ready for purchase without having to place an order.
shelf - on the shelf	No longer useful or desirable; too old to get married.
shit - be shitting bricks	To be in an extreme anxious and frightened state.
shit – full of shit	Use to describe what someone says is stupid.
shit – in the shit	To be in deep trouble.

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shoestring - on a shoestring	Cheaply, without spending much money.
short – in short supply	Insufficient to meet the demand of a commodity, etc.
short – short of breath	Breathing with short, quick breaths.
shot – a long shot	A poor guess or attempt at something
shot – a parting shot	A remark that one makes before leaving.
shoulder – shoulder to shoulder	Together with mutual cooperation and support.
sick – sick to death	Extremely fed up and annoyed by constant exposure to something.
sight – at first sight	First impression conveyed by something; when first seen.
sight – raise one's sights	Aim to achieve something.
sinew -sinews of war	Money.
six - sixes and sevens, at	In a disorganised and confused state.
skin - skin and bone, be	Very thin.
skin - skin someone alive	To mete out very harsh punishment to someone.
sleep – put to sleep	To administer drug or anaesthetic to someone to make them unconscious; to kill an animal painlessly.
sleep – sleep a wink	Sleep for a brief moment.
sleep – sleep on it	To defer (a decision, etc.) to a later date.
slip – let something slip	To accidentally make known information that is meant to be kept secret.
slip – slip a disc	Suffer intense pain when a piece of the series of small bones forming the backbone becomes displaced.
slip – slip of the tongue	Make a mistake when speaking.
slip – slip one's mind/memory	To forget to do something.

slog - slog it out	To battle or compete fiercely for something.
sly on the sly	Secretly; done in a surreptitious way.
smell - smell a rat	To detect something suspicious.
snap – in a snap	In a moment, immediately.
son – son of a bitch	Used to show total disrespect for or address someone in an insulting and offensive way.
son – son of a gun	Used to refer to someone.
sort – a sort of	To not exactly describe someone or something.
sort – in some sort	To a certain extent.
sort – of a sort/of sorts	Of an inferior or unusual kind, not worthy of its name.
sort - out of sorts	Not in one's normal good health.
sort – sort of	To some extent; partly.
spare – spare no expense	To use unlimited amount of money as is required.
sparks – spark will fly	There will be a heated exchange.
speak – on speaking terms	Slightly acquainted.
speak – so to speak	Not exactly as it means; in some sense.
speak – speak evil/ill/well of	To refer unfavourably/criticize/praise
speak – speak one's mind	To express freely exactly what one thinks.
spick - spick and span	Completely clean and tidy.
spill – spill one's guts	Reveal willingly much information about something.
spill – spill the beans	To accidentally make known what is previously unknown or secret information.
spin – spin a story/yarn	Tell an untrue story to deceive someone.
split – a split second	An extremely brief moment of time.
split – split one's sides	Laugh hysterically.
sport - be a sport	Used when seeking favour of someone.

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spout - up the spout	Unsuccessful, wasted; pregnant.
spread – spread one's wings	To expand one's knowledge, experience, or interest
staff - staff of life	Staple food, especially bread.
stand – I stand corrected	Ready to admit one's view or judgement is wrong.
stand – stand in line	Queue up.
stand – stand one's ground	Stick resolutely to one's opinion, etc.
start – for a start	To begin with.
start – to start with	To deal with the first thing or first part of something.
state – state of affairs	Situation.
state – state of emergency	Dangerous situation in which a government assumes absolute power.
state – state of grace	Having been forgiven for sins committed while alive.
state – state of mind	The way one feels.
stay – stay of execution	A delay in obeying a judicial order.
stay – stay the course	To endure in spite of difficulties to the end of a race, etc.
steal – steal a kiss	To kiss someone who has not expected it.
steal - steal a march	To start earlier so as to gain an advantage over others.
steal – steal someone's heart	Win someone's love.
steal – steal someone's thunder	To pre-empt someone's action to achieve or impress by acting first so as to gain praise or attention.
steal – steal the show	To divert praise and attention to oneself.
steam – get/pick up steam	To gradually gather momentum.
steam – let off steam	Get rid of excess strong emotion by doing vigorous activity.

steer – steer clear of	To avoid or ignore someone or something.
stiff – stiff upper lip	Uncomplaining or showing courage in difficult situation.
stock – on the stocks	Under construction; in preparation.
stock – out of stock	Not immediately available for sale or distribution.
stock – take stock of	Review or assess a situation.
stomach - a strong stomach	Able to see or do unpleasant things without feeling sick or upset.
stone - a stone's throw (away)	A very short distance away
strapped – strapped for cash	Not having or short of money.
straw - the last straw	The last of a series of problems which becomes unbearable making one give up, react, etc.
stretch – at a stretch	Continuously without a pause or break.
stretch – at full stretch	Using everything that one has
stretch – stretch a point	To do or go beyond the usual limit.
strike – strike the eye	To become particularly noticeable.
striking – within striking distance	Close to something or an achievement.
string – pull the strings	To be in control of affairs, events, etc.
strong – one's strong point	Something that one is very good at.
sundry - all and sundry	Everyone.
swallow – swallow one's pride	Do what one feels uncomfortable or embarrassed to do by intentionally disregarding one's feelings.
swing – in full swing	Reaching the highest point of activity.
swing – swing the balance	Influence the result of something.
sword – sword of Damocles	Constant threat or danger.
sync – in/out of sync	Working well/badly together.

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table - turn the tables	Turn a disadvantage into an advantage
table - under the table	Illegal and secret payment of money in exchange of a favour; bribery.
take – on the take	Taking bribes.
take – take a joke	Able to tolerate being teased or made fun of.
take – take one's time	Not acting hurriedly.
take – take that	Used to say to someone when hitting them.
talk - be all talk	Much talking, without action, about doing something.
talk – now you're talking	Used to express agreement with someone's good idea.
talk – talk sense into	To persuade someone to be sensible.
talk – talk the talk	To convince, persuade or impress by talking.
test – test the water	To seek opinions, views or feelings before taking action.
thin – thin on top	Balding.
thrill – thrills and spills	Exciting and pleasant experience.
thumb - under someone's thumb	Under someone's domination or influence.
tickle - be tickled pink	To be extremely amused or pleased.
tickle – tickle someone's fancy	To make someone interested in something.
time - ahead of time	Happens sooner than expected or the scheduled time.
time – behind the times	Not aware of or using the latest ideas or techniques.
time - take one's time	Not in a hurry.
time – time will tell	The result or the truth will be known in the future.

tit - tit for tat	Retaliation against someone who has done something bad to you.
tongue – hold one's tongue	To stop or told to stop speaking.
tongue – tongue in cheek	With humorous insincerity.
tongues - speak in tongues	Speak in an unknown language during a religious worship.
tooth - tooth and nail	With all one's might
toss – give a toss	Care about something at all.
toss – take a toss	Fall off a horse.
toss – toss one's cookies	Vomit.
touch – out of touch	Not having good understanding of something; lacking up-to-date information.
touch – touch a nerve	To bring up a sensitive subject.
touch - touch-and-go	A situation with a possible but uncertain outcome.
track – keep track of	Follow development of; to be fully aware of something.
track – off the track	Derailed; deviated from the subject in question.
trail – trail one's coat	Deliberately provoke a quarrel or fight.
trial – trial and error	Make repeated attempts or conduct varied experiments until the most successful one is determined.
trice – in a trice	Very quickly.
tried – tried and tested	A successfully proven way of doing something.
true – out of true	Not accurately or exactly positioned or out of alignment.
true – true to form	Matching one's expectation.
true – true to life	Matching reality.

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turn - at every turn	All the time; every time.
two – two cents worth	Someone's opinion.
up - be up on	To be well informed about something.
upper - on one's uppers	Very poor.
use – use and wont	Established custom.
vale - vale of tears	This world as regarded as a place of great sorrow and difficulties.
walk – walk of life	The type of job a person does.
walk – walk on eggshells	To exercise utmost caution in one's words and actions.
walk – walk one's talk	Used to mean one's actions must suit one's words.
wanting - be found wanting	Discovered to be inadequate for a particular purpose.
wear - wear the breeches	Domination of the husband by the wife.
wet – wet one's pants	Become extremely excited or scared.
wet - wet one's whistle	To have an alcoholic drink.
wheel – behind the wheel	driving a vehicle.
wheel – wheel and deal	Involve in unscrupulous political or commercial schemes.
wheel – wheels within wheels	Situation of extreme complexity.
wild – in the wild	In an uncultivated or uninhabited region; a wilderness.
wild – wild and woolly	Lacking good manners
wild - wild goose chase	Hunt for something that does not exist or is not worth hunting for.
win – win the day	Be victorious in a battle, argument, etc.
wink – in a wink	Very quickly; any moment now.

word - a good word	Words in commendation of someone.
word - have a word	To speak briefly.
word - word of honour	Binding engagement or a promise.
word - words fail me	Too shocked or surprised to say anything.
world – the outside world	Existing away from a place or area; the rest of the world.

PROVERBS AND SAYINGS

A bad excuse is better than none. Giving a poor excuse is better than not having an excuse as a poor excuse may be believed.

A bad workman blames his tools. Workers who do not have the necessary ability to do something successfully blames their equipment or tools.

A bird in hand is worth two in the bush. What you actually have now is more valuable than something you may get, so avoid risking what you have to get it.

A bully is always a coward. A bully is one who picks on someone who is weaker and cannot fight back.

A burnt child dreads fire. Someone who has a bad experience tends to always avoid such experience.

A dog is man's best friend. Dogs are more faithful than any human companion.

A chip off the old block. A person who has similar character or appearance as that of his or her parent.

A cold hand and a warm heart. This is used to say to someone with cold hands in order to stop them being shy or embarrassed.

A drowning man will clutch at a straw. When a person is desperate or in a very difficult situation, he will seize any opportunity to save or improve himself.

A fate worse than death. An experience that is so bad that we wish we need not have to go through.

A fool and his money are soon parted. There is a tendency for foolish people to be easily cheated or lose their money.

A friend in need is a friend indeed. If someone is your true friend, he will stand by you in times of difficulties.

A friend to all is a friend to none. A person who tries to be friends with everyone will end up being friends with no one.

A good beginning is half the battle. A good start to an undertaking is halfway to making a success of it.

A good beginning makes a good ending. Thorough preparation ensures a successful ending.

A good tale is none the worse for being told twice. It is all right to tell a story, joke, etc. a second time if it is a good story. This proverb is often used to justify repeating a story.

A good wife/husband makes a good husband/wife. A wife or husband who treats the family well will find her or his spouse doing the same.

A guilty conscience needs no accuser. People who have done wrong unconsciously express their guilt in what they say or how they behave, or think they are always the subject of other people's talk.

A heavy purse makes a light heart. People who have plenty of money are happy and free from worry.

A hungry man is an angry man. Hunger makes a man angry.

A man is as old as he feels; a woman is as old as she looks. A man may feel younger on a good day and older on a bad day, and a woman makes herself look younger or older by using clothing and make-up to make herself younger or older than she actually is.

A man is known by the company he keeps. People's judgement of you may be based on the reputation or character of the people you associate with.

A miss is as good as a mile. If you miss, you miss even though you almost hit the target.

A penny saved is a penny earned/gained. However small the amount you save, it is still wise to save.

A rich man's joke is always funny. Wealthy people are surrounded by flatterers who strive to win their favour by laughing at all their jokes even though they are not funny.

A rolling stone gathers no moss. People who move or travel around freely or easily have less personal responsibility or attachment.

A rose by any other name would smell as sweet. It the qualities inherent in someone or something that matter and not whatever name they are called.

A small leak will sink a great ship. Unimportant or insignificant problem can escalate into big or serious problem.

A stitch in time saves nine. It is better to deal with problems early than to wait until they get worse.

A watched pot never boils. When we watch impatiently to happen, it seems to take longer than usual to happen.

A wolf in sheep's clothing. There are people who hide the fact that they are evil with a pleasant and friendly appearance.

A woman's work is never done. The household chores are unending being repeated day after day.

A word spoken is past recalling. This is a reminder that we should think carefully before speaking because we cannot take back what we have said.

Absence makes the heart grow fonder. One's feeling of affection increases when a close one such as a family member or a friend is not in one's company.

Actions speak louder than words. What one does is more important than what one says.

Action without thought is like shooting without aim. One should think before one acts in order to get what one wants.

All roads lead to Rome. All the methods of doing something will achieve the same result in the end.

All that glitters is not gold. Things are not always as valuable as they appear to be.

All things are possible with God. Anything might happen as nothing is impossible to the divine will.

All work and no play make Jack a dull boy. One should take a break from work for leisure or relaxation to prevent harm to one's health, quality of work or personal relationships.

All is fair in love and war. One can skip all reasonable behaviour when in love and war.

All's well that ends well. When everything ends in a good or satisfactory way, all difficulties one encounters along the way can be forgotten.

Always a bridesmaid, never the bride. Someone who is never the most important person in a situation.

An apple a day keeps the doctor away. This proverb lays emphasis on fruit as an important element in one's healthy diet.

An Englishman's home is his castle. English people believe that they should be able to control what happens in their own homes, and that no one else should tell them what to do there.

An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. / Prevention is better than cure. It is better to stop something bad from happening than it is to deal with it after it has happened. / It often requires considerable effort to put right something that could have prevented with a little effort.

As you make your bed, so must you lie on it. You must accept the consequences of your foolish action or decision.

As you sow, so you shall reap. Whether you do something good or bad determines what will happen to you in the future.

Ask a silly question and you get a silly answer. If you ask a question that cannot be answered, or to which the answer is obvious, you are likely to receive a humorously inappropriate or nonsensical reply.

Ask no questions and you'll be told (or hear) no lies. It is better you do not ask questions of someone who is not willing to answer and so may tell a lie.

Barking dogs seldom bite. People who make the most or loudest threats are unlikely to carry out their threats.

Barking up the wrong tree. Have a wrong idea of getting something that is desired.

Be born with a silver spoon in your mouth. To be born into a rich family.

Beggars can't be choosers. We must be grateful for what is given to us, otherwise we would have nothing.

Beat about the bush. To avoid or delay talking about something by talking about something else that is irrelevant or insignificant.

Beauty is but skin-deep. Beauty exists on the surface only, and may conceal an unpleasant character.

Beauty is in the eye of the beholder. Not everyone will agree that the same thing or person is attractive which means beauty is subjective.

Beggars must not be choosers. When we cannot get something better, what we get we must be grateful and without complaint.

Better a devil you know than a devil you don't know. It is wiser to deal with someone familiar although you do not like them than to deal with someone who you do not know, who might be worse.

Better an old man's darling than a young man's slave. It is better to be married to an older man who will care for you lovingly than to a younger man who may ill-treat you.

Better late than never. Someone arrives or something happens later as one wishes is better than not at all.

Between the devil and the deep blue sea. One has two choices which are both undesirable.

Birds of a feather flock together. People tend to associate with others who have same interests or possess similarly bad character.

Bite off more than one can chew. To try to do more than one is able to do.

Blood is thicker than water. The affection between members of a family is much stronger than any other relationship.

Blow one's own trumpet. To praise oneself for one's own achievements

Born with a silver spoon in the mouth. To be born into a rich family.

Both poverty and prosperity come from spending money – prosperity from spending it wisely. Spending money without thought or care for the consequences makes one poor while spending money to get good returns on investments makes one succeed financially.

Boys will be boys. Boys must be excused for their bad behaviour.

Bread always falls buttered side down. It often happens that the least desired of all possible outcomes will result.

Burn the candle at both ends. Work so hard for too long.

Business is business. There is no sympathetic feeling in business.

Call a spade a spade. Say the truth about someone or something even if the truth is not respectful, polite or pleasant.

Cast pearls before swine. To offer something that is very valuable to someone who does not understand how valuable it is.

Charity begins at home. Caring for someone should begin with those closest and dearest to you before others.

Children should be seen and not heard. In the presence of adults, children should not speak unless spoken to.

Christmas comes but once a year. Excessive spending and enjoying the pleasure of Christmas or other celebrations are justified as they don't happen often.

Civility costs nothing. There is nothing to lose by being polite.

Cleanliness is next to godliness. It emphasizes the importance of personal hygiene and cleanliness.

Cold hands, warm heart. Those whose hands are cold to the touch are supposedly kind and affectionate by nature; this is used to comfort someone whose hands are cold to stop them from feeling embarrassed.

Cross the bridge only when you come to it. You will not think or worry about something until it actually happens.

Curiosity killed a cat. Desire to find out about something can lead you into trouble.

Cut your coat according to your cloth. Spend only as much money as you can afford, and do not try to live beyond your means.

Dead men tell no tales. People who are dead cannot tell secrets, so it may be expedient to kill somebody who could betray a secret or give information about the criminal activities of others.

Death pays all debts. Dead people do not owe anything to people who are living.

Desires are nourished by delays. A desire or wish becomes stronger if it is not satisfied immediately.

Desperate diseases need desperate remedies. When we are in a particularly difficult situation, it is right or reasonable to take drastic action.

Diamond cut diamond. One cunning person is a match for another.

Discretion is the better part of valour. It is often wiser to be careful than to take unnecessary risks.

Do not bite off more than you can chew. Don't take on a difficult task that you cannot tackle.

Do not bite the hand that feeds you. One should not be unkind or ungrateful to those on whom one depends for financial or other support.

Do not build your castles in the air. Don't have plans or hopes that are unlikely ever to become real.

Don't burn your bridges behind you. Be wise enough not to make an irrevocable decision before thinking carefully as one can never be sure of what the future holds.

Do not count your chickens before they are hatched. It is better not to optimistically assume one will get or be successful until one has actually got it or succeeded.

Do not cry out before you are hurt. There is no need to upset yourself about something bad that may or may not happen.

Do not cry over spilt milk. Do not feel sorry about an earlier mistake or misfortune that cannot be put right.

Do not get mad, get even. Take positive action to retaliate for a wrong that has been done to you, rather than wasting your time and energy in angry recrimination

Do not halloo till you are out of the wood. Avoid any show of victory, achievement, relief until you are certain that you have overcome the difficult circumstances.

Do not judge a book by its cover. Do not judge someone or something from outward appearance as we don't know what that someone or something is like.

Do not meet trouble half-way. Don't worry about problems before they actually happen.

Do not put all your eggs in one basket. Do not risk doing only one thing but spread your risks so that if it fails you will not lose everything.

Do not put the cart before the horse. Do not do things in the wrong order.

Do not shoot the messenger. Do not blame or get angry with the messenger who brings you the bad news.

Do not swap horses in midstream. Do not change tactics or strategy in the midst of a course of action or task.

Do not wash your dirty linen in public. Do not discuss matters in public when they should be discussed in private.

Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise. This means to have a good body and mind and financial success, one need to lead a way of life that does not involve staying up late or going to bed late.

East, west, home's best. Wherever you are or however far you have travelled, you cannot deny that your own home is still a better place.

Easy come, easy go. What you can easily come to possess especially money can also be just as easily lost or used up.

Eat to live; do not live to eat. One eats to stay fit and healthy and not to allow oneself to enjoy the pleasure of eating that leads excessive consumption of wrong types of food.

Empty vessels make the most noise. This is often used as a remark with the intention to humiliate or criticize someone who talks incessantly as is mostly the case that foolish people are the most talkative.

Err on the side of caution. Be extra careful rather than taking unnecessary risk or making a needless mistake.

Every cloud has a silver lining. There is always something good in a bad experience or difficult situation.

Every dog has its day. Every one has a period of time in life of good fortune.

Every Jack has his Jill. Everybody will ultimately find a suitable partner in their life.

Every little helps. However small a contribution is, it still helps.

Every man for himself, and God for us all. At times of intense difficulty or danger, everyone is responsible for his or her own safety, and divine protection for all.

Every man is the architect of his own fortune. Every person is responsible for his or her success or failure in life.

Every time a sheep baas, he loses a bite. This is said to children who talk too much at meals.

Everybody's business is nobody's business. People tend not to care about matters of general concern because they think they are of nobody's responsibility and that somebody else should deal with them.

Evil be to him who thinks it. Those who wish ill upon others deserve ill luck themselves.

Faint heart never won fair lady. It is necessary to be confident and daring to be successful with women or to accomplish one's aim.

Fair exchange is no robbery. Exchanging things which are of about equal value is fair exchange; this is also used to justify taking something from someone who has taken something from you.

Faith can move mountains. If someone's beliefs and confidence are strong enough, they can achieve almost everything.

Familiarity breeds contempt. The tendency is to become less respectful of people with whom we have become better acquainted.

Few words are best. It is best to communicate in as few words as possible.

Fight fire with fire. Use the same methods as someone else in order to defeat them.

Fire is a good servant but a bad master. Fire is very useful when it is under control, but highly dangerous when it takes control.

First come, first served. A person who arrives before other people will be served before them.

Flog a dead horse. To waste one's time and effort on something that has no possibility of success.

Forgive and forget. Do not bear grudges – forgive those who have wronged you and forget the wrong.

Fortune favours the brave. Those who act daringly or courageously are most likely to succeed.

God helps those who help themselves. Those who are self-reliant and make an effort are more likely to get what they want than those who sit back and wait for divine assistance.

Good masters make good servants. People who live or work together should set a good example to each other.

Good people are scarce. There is a lack of decent people; also applies to the difficulty in recruiting people with the desired talent or qualification.

Great minds think alike. This is used when people share the same opinion or act in the same way.

Half a loaf is better than no bread. If we get less than we desire, we should still be grateful as it is better to get something than nothing.

Handsome is as handsome does. People should be valued for their good deeds, not their good looks.

Hard words break no bones. How harsh criticism or abusive words may be, it can cause no physical harm.

Hasty climbers have sudden falls. Rapid advancement in one's life often ends in sudden and unexpected and disgraceful or shameful downfall.

Have an axe to grind. To have a strong opinion about something which you try to persuade other people to accept.

He who hesitates is lost. A person who delays in making a decision or seize an opportunity is very likely to miss out.

He who is good at making excuses is seldom good at anything else. A person who constantly gives excuses is found lacking in own worth or abilities.

He who laughs last laughs best. Successes or failures along the way are of no consequence; it is the ultimate success that matters.

He who lives by the sword dies by the sword. Those who live a life with behaviour involving physical force intended to hurt, damage, or kill will end their lives in a similar manner.

He who pays the piper may call the tune. The person who pays has the right to decide.

He who will not when he may, when he will he shall have nay. One must take advantage of an opportunity when it presents itself, even if one does not want it at the time because it may no longer be available when one does want it.

He who would the daughter win, must with the mother first begin. If you want to ask for a young woman's hand in marriage, it is important to make a favourable impression on her mother.

Heads I win, tails you lose. The outcome of any situation is that it's impossible for one person not to be a winner and just as impossible for another person not to be a loser.

Here today and gone tomorrow. This refers to something which lasts only a short time.

His bark is worse than his bite. Though he talks in an angry way, he would not behave violently.

History repeats itself. Things often happen in the same way as they happened before.

Hit the nail on the head. To give an accurate description of what causes a problem.

Honesty is the best policy. It is better to tell the truth than to lie.

Hope for the best and prepare for the worst. Remain optimistic, but be fully prepared to face failure or disaster.

Hunger is the best sauce. Hunger makes all food taste good, regardless of its quality or the way it is served.

If at first you do not succeed, try, try, try again! Never give up or lose confidence or enthusiasm, persist until success is yours.

If the cap fits, wear it / If the shoe fits, wear it. If you are guilty of bad behaviour, you should accept criticism.

If the mountain will not come to Mohammed, Mohammed must go to the mountain. If you fail to achieve something, readjust yourself or try another way.

If wishes were horses, beggars would ride. It is pointless imagining a very unlikely future event or situation as if it were possible and might one day happen.

If you are not part of the solution, you are part of the problem. Those who cannot or refuse to contribute to an improvement or a solution are a serious obstacle.

If you desire peace, prepare for war. A nation that is seen to be ready and able to defend itself is less likely to be attacked.

If you do not make mistakes, you do not make anything. If we do nothing, we make no mistakes so to make something we must not be afraid to make mistakes.

If you pay peanuts, you get monkeys. People having the necessary ability or knowledge to do something successfully will not work for a paltry sum of money.

If you run after two horses, you will catch neither. If you try to do two things at once you will fail at both.

If you want a thing well done, do it yourself. To ensure something is done properly, rely not on others but to do it yourself.

Ignorance is bliss. It is often better not to have knowledge of something that would alarm or distress you.

Ill / bad news travels fast. Bad news tend to be spread more quickly than good news as people take great pleasure in talking or listening to the misfortunes of others.

Ill-gotten gains never prosper / ill-gotten goods never thrive. Something obtained by dishonest means will not bring good fortune to the person who acquires it.

In at one ear, out at the other. This is used to mean you quickly forget something that you hear.

In the country of the blind the one-eyed is king. Someone with only a limited ability is in a better position to succeed than those who have none or are even less able.

It never rains but it pours. When one bad thing happens and is followed by a lot of other bad things, it makes a bad situation worse.

It takes all sorts to make a world / it takes all kinds of people to make a world. People are different in many ways and it calls for tolerance and mutual respect.

It takes a thief to catch a thief. One dishonest person can guess what another dishonest person might do.

It takes one to know one. Only those who have faults are able to recognise similar faults in others.

It takes two to make a quarrel. A quarrel cannot happen unless both parties want to get involved in it.

It takes two to tango. It takes two persons to get willingly involved in an activity.

It is an ill bird that fouls its own nest. One should not say or do anything that will harm the good reputation of one's family or country.

It is an ill wind that blows nobody any good. There is usually somebody who benefits from an unfavourable set of circumstances.

It is easy to be wise after the event. We become wiser after what we have done wrong or what went wrong when we have the benefit of hindsight.

It is good fishing in troubled waters. Sometimes we delight in taking advantage in other people's misfortune.

It is love that makes the world go round. Love is extremely important, without it many ordinary events could not happen.

It is never too late to mend. We can improve ourselves or things at any time

It is not over till it is over. Do not despair until you have finally lost or there's complete absence of hope.

It is not the end of the world. An event is not beyond hope as it seems; this is used to allay the doubts and fears of someone after a minor unlucky accident.

It is not the size of the dog in the fight, it is the size of the fight in the dog. In a fight or dispute, the will and desire to win override other factors such as physical size or strength, or numerical strength.

It is no use crying over spilt milk. It is not useful feeling sorry about something which has already happened.

It takes money to make money. Any moneymaking enterprise requires money as capital.

It takes all kinds of people to make a world. People vary widely in attribute, aspect, etc and one should accept and respect this diversity.

Jack of all trades and master of none. Someone is able to do many things, but is not an expert in any of them.

Keep a thing seven years, and you will find a use for it. Do not get rid of something which seems no longer useful but may be desirable in the future.

Keep your shop and your shop will keep you. If you manage your business in the way you should, it will continue to be a source of regular income.

Kill the goose that lays the golden egg. To destroy something valuable or makes a lot of money for you.

Kill two birds with one stone. Succeed in achieving two things in a single action.

Know thyself. Be aware of your own strengths and weaknesses.

Knowledge is power. Those who possess knowledge wield power or influence over those who do not.

Last but not least. A person is not any less important because mentioned or listed last.

Laugh and grow fat. Lively amusement or the experience of finding something funny is good for the health.

Laugh and the world laughs with you, weep and you weep along. Happy people attract company while miserable people are avoided and ignored.

Least said soonest mended. This means a bad situation can be quickly forgotten if people stop talking about it.

Let bygones be bygones. This is to say that you should forgive and forget by forgetting about bad things that happened in the past and forgive that someone who has done them to you.

Let sleeping dogs lie. To avoid or warn someone against mentioning a past matter that has been forgotten.

Let the cat out of the bag. To allow a secret to be known, usually without intending to.

Let the genie out of the bottle. To allow something bad or unwanted to happen which cannot then be stopped.

Let well alone. / Leave well alone. Allow something to stay as it is because doing more might make things worse.

Lightning never strikes twice (in the same place). It is unlikely that something bad or unusual will happen to the same person twice.

Like a bull in a china shop. This refers to someone who is very careless in the way that they move or behave.

Like father, like son. Sons tend to resemble their fathers in character and behaviour.

Listeners hear no good of themselves. It is possible that the conversation you secretly listen to

Little strokes fell great oaks. Achievement can be attained in small stages and with persistence.

Little things please little minds. Foolish people are easily pleased.

Live and learn. People learn by making mistakes which are corrected by others.

Live and let live. To accept the way other people live and behave, especially if they do things in a different way.

Look before you leap. Think carefully before you act especially on something that has far-reaching consequences.

Look on the bright side. Always be optimistic or have positive thinking even when experiencing personal difficulties in life.

Love begets love. One has to be loving to gain the love of someone.

Love is blind. You do not notice the faults of the person you love.

Love makes the world go round. Love motivates people and makes whatever they do worthwhile.

Love me little, love me long. Warm affection lasts longer than burning passion.

Make hay while the sun shines. You should make good use of an opportunity while it lasts.

Man cannot live by bread alone. People need not just food, but other things such as poetry, art, music, etc. to live happily.

Man proposes; God disposes. The realisation or fulfillment of man's plan or project can only come about if God permits it.

Manners maketh man. / Manners make the man. Good manners distinguish a man.

Many hands make light work. When many people help to do a piece of work, it is quickly and easily done.

Marriage is a lottery. Whether one's marriage succeeds or fails, or one's choice of a marriage partner is all a matter of luck.

Marriages are made in Heaven. God decides a person's marriage.

Marry in haste, repent in leisure. If you marry someone without knowing them well, you will later fill with regret that you married them.

Misfortunes never come singly. Misfortunes come in rapid succession.

Moderation in all things. It is best not to have or do too much or too little of anything.

Money begets money. It is easy to make money when you have money.

Money talks. When you are rich or wealthy, you have great influence.

More haste less speed. If you try to do something too quickly, it will take you longer to complete it.

Necessity is the mother of invention. If you really need to have something or to do something, you will think of a way of getting it or doing it.

Never do things by halves. When you do something by halves, you do it half-heartedly without much effort and enthusiasm.

Never say die. Keep trying without giving a thought to stop trying or give up.

Never the twain shall meet. When two things or people are completely different or very different in background or outlook and unsuitable for each other are likely never to agree.

Never too late to learn. Nobody is too old to acquire knowledge or a skill.

Never trouble trouble till trouble troubles you. Do not look forward to problems, deal with them only when they need to be dealt with.

New brooms sweep clean. When someone new takes up a position of control of an organisation, he or she makes thorough changes.

New wine in old bottle. Introduction of new ideas into an old establishment can lead to undesired consequences.

No gains without pains / No pain, no gain. Nothing can be achieved without effort, suffering, or hardship.

No news is good news. When no news is received about someone or something, it is assumed that nothing bad has happened.

No smoke without fire. There is probably a good reason for saying unpleasant things about someone or something.

No time like the present. It is better to take action immediately instead of waiting.

Nothing comes of nothing. If you produce or provide nothing, you get nothing in return as nothing results from nothing; everything must result from something

Nothing is certain but death and the taxes. We are certain about death and taxes, but unsure about other things.

Nothing succeeds like success. Successful people go on to achieve more success.

Nothing ventured, nothing gained. One has to take risk in order to get something good.

Of two evils, choose the lesser. / The lesser of two evils. Where both choices are no good, we choose the less disagreeable one.

Once bitten, twice shy. Frightened to do something again because of a bad experience doing it the first time

Once in a blue moon. Not very often

One cannot be in two places at once. This is used to tell someone who desires to be at two different places at the same time; a choice that has to be made between varied options.

One good turn deserves another. A kind act is worthy of reciprocation.

One half of the world does not know how the other half lives. People lack understanding of how other people live their lives in different circumstances or countries.

One man's loss is another man's gain. One person benefits from someone else's misfortune.

One man's meat is another man's poison. It often happens that one person dislikes what another person likes.

One swallow does not make a summer. Making a general statement based on one specific case

Out of debt, out of danger. People who do not owe money can feel free from fear or anxiety.

Out of sight, out of mind. There is the tendency for people to forget other people whom they have not seen for some time.

Out of the frying-pan into the fire. Move from a bad or difficult situation to one which is worse.

Penny wise, pound foolish. Be extremely careful about small amounts of money but not careful enough about larger amounts of money.

People who live in glass houses should not throw stones. You should not criticise other people for bad qualities in their character that you have yourself.

Practice makes perfect. The repeated doing of something improves one's performance.

Practise what you preach. Do the things that you advise others to do.

Pride goes before a fall. When one is overconfident about one's abilities, it may cause one to fail and suffer the humiliation.

Procrastination is the thief of time. If you constantly delay or postpone an action, you not only waste the time that you could have used to have it done but also will run out of time to do it in the end.

Promises are like pie-crust, made to be broken. People make all kinds of big and small promises they have no intention of keeping.

Rats desert a sinking ship. There is a tendency for people to abandon a failing business, cause or activity.

Revenge is sweet. Feeling satisfaction from inflicting harm in return on someone because they have done or said something harmful to you

Robbing Peter to pay Paul. Borrowing money from one person to pay it back to someone else from whom you have borrowed money.

Rome was not built in a day. One cannot expect to do something worthwhile in a short period of time.

Run with the hare and hunt with the hounds. One cannot support two opposing camps at the same time.

Second thoughts are best. This is a reminder to not act impulsively.

See no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil. Ignore and do not get involved in rumour or gossip that is circulating.

Seeing is believing. You have to see something yourself before you believe it to exist or be true which is impractical as there are things that actually exist but are extremely hard to see.

Self-preservation is nature's first law. This is used to demonstrate that people act to protect themselves as survival is the primary natural instinct of all living things.

Set a thief to catch a thief. A person who has been involved in illegal or dishonest acts is good at detecting such tendencies in others, whose thinking and actions he or she can understand and anticipate.

Share and share alike. This is used to encourage any person to share things equally with others who have a right to an equal share.

Shut the stable door after the horse has bolted. To be too late to take action to prevent something bad from happening

Silence gives consent. Those who do not respond to accusation, objection, etc. are assumed to accept or consent.

Six of one, half a dozen of the other. One is as bad as the other, so there's isn't a choice here.

Slow and steady wins the race. Success comes to those who move forward at a gentle steady pace and not to those who rush.

Sorrow comes unsent for. No one individual can escape the feeling of sorrow; it affects everyone.

Spare the rod and spoil the child. To punish children for misbehaviour is necessary in order to instill discipline.

Speech is silver; silence is golden. It is good to speak, but there are times when it is better to say nothing.

Sticks and stones may break my bones, but words will never hurt me. People cannot be hurt by unpleasant things that are said to them.

Still water runs deep. A person who says little, but who might in fact know a lot.

Strike while the iron is hot. Seize the opportunity as soon as it presents itself before it is lost.

Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves. Be careful with small amounts of money and one will have plenty of money.

Take the bull by the horns. Be brave and determined in doing something difficult.

Take things as they come (or, as you find them). One should deal with difficulties or problems only when they occur and not worry about the future.

Talk of the devil, and he will appear. / Speak of the devil and he always appears. This refers to the coincidence which happens when someone we are talking about unexpectedly appear.

Teach your grandmother to suck eggs. Give advice to someone who is more experienced than you or knows more about a subject than you.

Tell the truth and shame the devil. We are often tempted to tell lies but it is always best to tell the truth.

The best of both worlds. Be enjoying two very different things at the same time.

The best of friends must part. No friendships can last a lifetime as friends will eventually move apart.

The better the day the better the deed. How valuable an action is depends on the day it is performed, especially if it is on a holy day.

The bigger they are, the harder they fall. The loss of power, prosperity, or status of a great or important person is embarrassingly worse and more damaging than a person who is not so great or important.

The blind leading the blind. A person who knows nothing is getting advice and help from another person who knows almost nothing.

The boot / shoe is on the other foot. Circumstances have become the opposite of what they were.

The burnt child dreads the fire. Someone learns from a bad experience and is fearful of going through it again.

The cowl does not make the monk. One's appearance should not be used to judge one's character.

The early bird catches the worm. People who are late to arrive tend to miss opportunities already seized by others who come earlier.

The end justifies the means. A worthy objective can never be justified by employing evil means to achieve it.

The exception proves the rule. The existence of an exception to a rule shows that the rule itself exists and is applicable in other cases

The face is the index of the mind. / The eyes are the mirrors of the soul. A person's face / eyes often reveal his or her thoughts, feelings, or character.

The grapes are sour. This refers to someone's behavior or opinion when they are angry because something they want is unattainable.

The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence. Anything such as situation, place, job, lifestyle, etc that is not our own always seems to be better.

The greater the truth, the greater the libel. Some people are hurt more by a true accusation than a false one.

The jury is still out. This means to say people do not yet know the answer or have a definite opinion about something.

The king can do no wrong. This means the king above the law as the king is not bound by the rules and regulations that apply to others.

The last straw that breaks the camel's back. The last one in a series of problems, provocations, etc. that finally causes a person to react such as giving up, getting angry, retaliating, etc.

The love of money is the root of all evil. Greed is the main cause of much of the evil in this world.

The more the merrier. There is usually more fun when there are more people participating in an activity.

The pen is mightier than the sword. Thinking and writing have more influence on people and events than the use of force or violence.

The pot calling the kettle black. Someone criticizes another person for a fault that they have themselves.

The proof of the pudding is in the eating. One cannot be certain of the quality of something until one has tasted, felt or used it.

The remedy is worse than the disease. The means used to solve a problem is more damaging than the original problem.

The sky is the limit. There is almost no limit to what one can do such as indulging, spending, earning, achieving, etc.

The stream cannot rise above its source. Nothing can be better than the source from which it originates.

The unexpected always happens. Something not anticipated or predicted will happen for which we are not prepared and this is always a certainty.

There are more ways to kill a cat than by choking it with cream. If we fail in one way to accomplish something, there are other ways we can choose from.

There are two sides to every question. One should view an issue from two different angles, both of which are worthy of careful thought.

There is no smoke without fire / Where there is smoke there is fire. If unpleasant things are said about someone or something, there is probably a good reason for it.

There is safety in numbers. Being a member of a group makes one feel protected or not exposed to danger.

Throw the baby out with the bath water. Get rid of the whole thing when only part of it is no longer useful or desirable and as a result, lose valuable ideas.

Tied to one's mother's / wife's apron strings. Being strongly influenced and controlled by someone.

Time and tide waits for no man. We should not delay doing things as we cannot stop the passing of time.

To cut off your nose to spite your face. To do something to hurt others but it causes more harm to you.

To kill two birds with one stone. Everybody makes mistakes and it is necessary to forgive them for their mistakes.

To look for a needle in a haystack. Something that is virtually impossible to look for.

To put the cart before the horse. Not following the proper order when doing something.

To turn over a new leaf. To start becoming better than before.

Tomorrow is another day. Don't worry or even if you worry, just think that tomorrow things may become better.

Tomorrow never comes. Things will never get done if we keep putting them off until tomorrow.

Too many cooks spoil the broth. Too many people involved in doing something will destroy the quality of the outcome.

Trifles make perfection, and perfection is no trifle. Striving for perfection requires focusing on things which are of little value or importance and is no small matter.

Truth is stranger than fiction. Real events are more unusual than imaginary ones.

Two wrongs do not make a right. Wrongful acts can never be justifiable, even if another person does the same.

Two's company, three's none. Two people who take pleasure in each other's company will regard another person as an unwelcome intruder.

Upset the apple cart. Cause trouble, especially by spoiling another person's plans.
Virtue is its own reward. The feeling of satisfaction of having done something right is itself a reward.

Walls have ears. What we say may be overheard.

Water seeks its own level. People tend to be drawn toward, or end up with, others of the same background.

Waste not, want not. Do not waste anything and you will never be in need of it.

Well begun is half done. A good start to a task ensures its quick completion.

What cannot be cured must be endured. We must learn to put up with things that cannot be endured.

Whatever man has done, man can do. If someone has done something, it is not impossible for others to do it.

What the eye does not see, the heart does not grieve over. We are not bothered by or feel concern about what we are not aware of.

Whatever is worth doing at all is worth doing well. Completing a task is not enough, one must put in one's best effort.

When in doubt, leave out / When in doubt, do nothing. If one is not sure what to do, it's best to do nothing at all.

When in Rome, do as the Romans do. When visiting or living another country, one should behave like the people in that country.

When the cat's away, the mice will play. When the person in charge is away, the people there do as they please.

Where there is smoke there is fire / There's no smoke without fire. If unpleasant things are said about someone or something, there is probably a good reason for it.

Where there is a will there is a way. If you are determined enough, you will find a way to achieve it, even if it is very difficult.

Where there is life there is hope. As long as we are alive, there's within us a feeling of expectation.

While the grass grows the steed starves. Something that we have been waiting for a long time may arrive too late to be of use.

Who goes a-borrowing goes a-sorrowing. Borrowing usually leads to trouble as one is unable to repay what is owed.

Who knows most says least. People who are knowledgeable say little.

With friends like that, who need enemies. Friends who are disloyal, betray and deceive you are your actual enemies.

Why keep a dog and bark yourself? If you employ somebody to do something for you, there is no point in doing it yourself.

You cannot eat your cake and have it. You cannot have two good things at the same time that are impossible to have at the same time.

You cannot get blood out of a stone. You can't make someone give you something when he refuses to do so for some reason.

You cannot lose what you never had. Failure to get what you never have is not a real loss.

You cannot make an omelet without breaking eggs. One has to give up something in order to get something else.

You cannot teach an old dog new trick. It is very difficult to teach old people a new skill or method, or change their habits.

You may take a horse to the water, but you cannot make him drink. You can provide someone with an opportunity to do something, but you cannot force them to do it.

You never know what you can do till you try. People often don't realize what they are capable of until they try new things.

Young men may die, but old men must die. This is to say that anyone can die at any age, but it is definitely going to happen in old age.

You scratch my back and I shall scratch yours. Return favour to someone who receives your favour which applies specifically to corruption or an action of conspiring.

Young saint, old devil. Bad to be virtuous too early which, in other words, means those who behave best when they are young are often those who behave worst when they are old.

GIVEN NAMES, CHRISTIAN NAMES, OR FIRST NAMES

A **given name** (also known as **first name**, **forename**) is a part of a person's personal name. It identifies a specific person, and differentiates that person from other members of a group, such as a family or clan, with whom that person shares a common **surname**. A **given name** is a name given to a person at birth or baptism. *Given names* are referred to as *first names*. Christians often call their *first name* their "Christian name". It is different from a **surname**. A **surname** is the **last name** or **family name**.

Given names are often used in a familiar and friendly manner in informal situations. The idioms "on a first-name basis" and "being on first-name terms" say that another person may call you by your first name when you have allowed it. This person may be a friend or acquaintance. In more formal situations the surname is more commonly used with the formal title Mr, Mrs, Miss or Ms (Dr, Prof, Lord, Lady) before it.

Name order

The order **given name – family name**, commonly known as the Western order, is used throughout most European countries and in countries that have cultures predominantly influenced by Western Europe.

The order **family name – given name**, commonly known as the Eastern order, is primarily used in East Asia.

The order "given name - father's family name - mother's family name" is commonly used in Spanish or Portuguese-speaking countries to acknowledge the families of both parents as in: **Manuel Garcia Alvarez**.

Legal status

A child's given name or names are usually chosen by the parents soon after birth. If a name is not assigned at birth, one may be given at a naming ceremony, with family and friends in attendance. In most jurisdictions, a child's name at birth is a matter of public record, inscribed on a birth certificate, or its equivalent. In western cultures, people normally retain the same given name throughout their lives. However, in some cases these names may be changed by petitioning a court of law. People may also change their names when immigrating from one country to another with different naming conventions.

In certain jurisdictions, mainly civil-law jurisdictions such as France, Quebec, the Netherlands or Germany, a government-appointed registrar of births may refuse to register a name that may cause a child harm, or which is considered offensive. In France, the agency can refer the case to a local judge. Some jurisdictions, like in Sweden, restrict the spelling of names.

Origins and meanings

Parents may choose a name because of its meaning. This may be a personal or familial meaning, such as giving a child the name of an admired person, or it may be an example of nominative determinism, in which the parents give the child a name that they

believe will be lucky or favourable for the child. Given names most often derive from the following categories:

- **Personal traits** (external and internal). For example, the name **Clement** means "merciful". English examples include **Faith**, **Prudence**, and **August**.
- **Occupations**, for example **George** means "earth-worker" or "farmer".
- **Circumstances of birth**, for example **Thomas** meaning "twin" or the Roman name **Quintus**, which was traditionally given to the fifth male child.
- **Objects**, for example **Peter** means "rock" and **Edgar** means "rich spear".
- **Physical characteristics**, for example **Calvin** means "bald".
- **Variations on another name**, especially to change the sex of the name (Pauline from Paul, Georgia from George) or to translate from another language (for instance, the names **Francis** or **Francisco** that come from the name **Franciscus** meaning "Frank or Frenchman").
- **Surnames**, for example **Winston**, **Harrison**, and **Ross**. Such names can honour other branches of a family, where the surname would not otherwise be passed down (e.g., the mother's maiden surname).
- **Places**, for example **Brittany** and **Lorraine**.
- **Time of birth**, for example, the name **Natalie** meaning "[born on] Christmas day" in French or other Roman languages.

In many cultures, given names are reused, especially to commemorate ancestors or those who are particularly admired, resulting in a limited repertoire of names that sometimes vary by orthography.

If not mentioned otherwise, most given names are of Germanic or Celtic origin. Names may have a number of variants, for example, Stephen, Steven, Steve, Stephan, Steffan; Terry, Terrance, Terrence, Terence or Catherine, Cathryn, Cathleen, Katherine, Kathryn, Kathrine, Katharine, Katrina, Kathleen; Margaret, Margarita, Marguerite, Margret, Margareta, Margarete, Margarette, Marjorie, Margery. Many nicknames are used as given names, for example, Jack as a nickname for John and Jack as a given name in its own right; Harry as a nickname for Henry and Harry as an independent given name.

Use names and nicknames correctly. Names are "Proper Nouns". This means that they always begin with a Capital Letter! When addressing a person, do not change his or her name. For example, if a man introduces himself as Sam, call him Sam, not Samuel. If a man introduces himself as Samuel, call him Samuel, not Sam or Sammy. If he says that his name is Samuel Brown, address him as Mr Brown until he asks you to address him by his first name. If a woman tells you that her name is Sarah Brown, address her as Mrs Brown until she asks you to address her by her first name. This is a matter of respect!

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Womens' Given Names

Name	Description
Abbey	Variant of Abigail
Abbie	Variant of Abigail
Abigail	Biblical name meaning 'father of exaltation'
Ada	Pet forms of the girl's names Adele or Adelaide
Adelaide	English form of the French name Adélaïde for "noble character"
Adele	English form of the French name Adèle
Adrienne	Feminine of the name Adrian
Agatha	Good or honourable from agathos
Agnes	Pure, or holy from the word hagnos
Aileen	Variant of the girl's name Eileen
Alana	Feminine form of Alan
Alex	Variant of the name Alexandra or Alexis
Alexandra	From the Greek words for 'Defender of Mankind' and Warrior
Alice	Based on the girl's name Adelaide meaning "noble character"
Alina	From the names Alina and Linda
Alison	Norman diminutive of Alice
Alma	River in the Crimea
Amanda	To be loved; Roman origin
Amber	From the gemstone amber
Amelia	A mix between the names Emilia and Amalia
Amy	Anglicised from Amee (old French)
Andrea	Feminine form of the name Andrew
Angela	This name means Angelic
Ann	Another English spelling of Anne
Annabelle	Likely from Amabel
Anne	From the hebrew girl's name Hanna
Anthea	From the Greek name Antheia
April	English form of aprilis. Also a month.
Arlene	Probably based on Marlene or Charlene
Ashley	Derived from old English Ash and Wood
Audrey	From an old English name which means noble strength
Ava	Was a 9th century saint St Ava or Avis
Avril	Taken from April

Babs	Pet form of the girl's name Barbara
Barbara	Means foreign woman
Bea	Short form of Beatrix or Beatrice
Beatrix	Voyager / Blessed
Becky	From the girl's name Rebecca
Belinda	The beauty. Roman or Spanish origin
Bella	Short form of Isabella
Bernice	From Berenice
Berry	From the fruit
Bertha	Bright or famous
Beryl	A gemstone
Bess	From the English name Elizabeth
Bet	From the English name Elizabeth
Beth	From Elizabeth
Bethany	Village outside Jerusalem
Betsy	Pet form of Elizabeth
Betty	From the English girl's name Elizabeth
Beverly	From a Beaver Stream / Meadow
Blanche	Blonde, white or fair
Bobbie	Variant of the name Roberta
Bonnie	This English girl's name mean fine, attractive, lovely; Roman origin
Brenda	Flaming sword
Brianne	The feminine of Brian
Bridget	Anglicised from Brighid
Britney	From the name Britain
Brittany	From the name Britain
Brooke	From the Brook
Camilla	From the old Roman name Camillus
Candice	From Candace
Cara	Roman origin; meaning = To beloved
Carissa	Tender Touch
Carla	Feminine of Charles; German origin: Karl; Roman: Carolus
Carly	Pet form of Carla
Carmel	Christian origins
Carol	Anglisised form of Carolus

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Caroline	Anglisised form of Carolus
Carrie	Form of Caroline
Cass	Short for the girl's name Cassandra
Catherine	Roman spelling of the Greek name Katherine; meaning one of the two
Cathy	A short form of Catherine
Charis	From the Greek name haris to grace
Charity	Affection / 'Love for fellow human'
Charlene	Little Carla; originates from the Roman name Charles
Charlie	Pet name for Charles
Charlotte	From the name Charles
Chelsea	Means Harbour, and place in London
Cherida	A mix between Cheryl and Phillida
Cherish	To treasure
Cheryl	Origins unknown, possibly from Cherry and Beryl
Chloe	This name originate from the Greek name khlōē
Christina	Feminine form of Christian
Christine	Form of the girl's name Christina
Clara	Feminine form of the Roman name Clarus
Clare	A form of Clara
Clarissa	A version of the name Clarice
Claudia	Originates from the Roman name Claudius
Connie	Pet form of Constance
Courtney	Popular in America from the place Courtnay in France
Cynthia	From the girl's name Kynthia
Daisy	The name comes from the flower
Darlene	From the English word Darling
Davida	Feminine form of David
Dawn	Meaning in English = day break
Deborah	Biblical name
Dee	Pet ame of Dorothy
Deirdre	From Celtic legend Deidre of the Sorrows
Delia	From the place Delos
Dena	Possibly from the name Dean
Diana	Roman goddess of the moon and hunting
Dina	English variant of Dinah

Dolly	Pet form of Dorothy
Donna	From the name Madonna
Dora	From doron meaning a gift; Germanic origin
Doreen	From the name Dora
Doris	Of the Sea
Dorothy	From the English girl's name Dorothea
Ebony	English name from black wood
Edith	From the words for fortune, riches and strife
Edna	English form of Eithne
Edwina	Feminine of Edwin
Effie	Pet form of the name Euphemia
Elaine	A derived from Helen
Eleanor	A derived from Helen
Elena	Form of Helen
Elinor	Variation of Eleanor
Eliza	Short form of Elizabeth
Elizabeth	From Hebrew Elisheva = "my God is an oath" or "my oath to God"
Ella	A variant of the name Ellen
Ellen	Form of Helen
Ellie	Pet form of Eleanor/Ellen/Helen
Elsa	Short form of Elizabeth
Emily	Feminine version of the name Aemilius
Emma	From the names Ermintrude and Irmgard
Emmy	Pet form of Emma or Emily
Enola	Origins unknown
Erin	Anglised name from Eirinn
Esta	Version of Esther
Estelle	French origin; Meaning: star
Ethel	Means noble
Eudora	Greek origin = Good Gift
Eugenia	Greek origin from the name Eugenios = "well-born" or "noble"
Eunice	Greek origin = Good victory
Eve	A Biblical name
Evelyn	Comes from the girl's name Aveline
Evette	Form of Yvette

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Evie	Pet form of Eve or Eva
Evonne	English Girl's name based on Yvonne
Faith	Faith and belief in God
Fanny	Pet form of Frances
Fay	Half sister of king Arthur
Faye	Half sister of king Arthur
Felicity	Means good luck; Roman origin
Fern	Means fern plant
Flo	Comes from the verb to work
Flora	Goddess of flowers; Roman origin
Florence	From the name Florentius; Roman origin
Florrie	Pet name for Flora
Fran	Short for Frances
Frances	Female version of Francis
Freda	Short name Winfred or Elfreda
Gail	From Abigail
Gale	From Abigail
Gayle	From Abigail
Gaynor	From Guinevere; French origin
Georgia	Feminine of George
Georgiana	Feminine of George
Geraldine	Female form of Gerald
Germaine	From Germanus
Gertrude	From the words 'gar' (spear) and 'prup' (strength)
Gill	Pet form of Gillian
Gillian	Feminine of Julian
Gloria	From glorious
Glynis	From Glenys
Grace	From the Roman name Gratia
Gracie	Pet form of the English name Grace
Gretta	English version of the name Greta
Guinevere	English girl's name from Gwenhwyfar
Haley	Version of Hayley
Harriet	English version of the name Henriette
Hattie	From Harriet

Hayley	Place in Oxfordshire
Hazel	From the hazelnuts and their colour
Heather	From the heather plant
Helen	English version of the Greek name Helene
Henrietta	Female version of Henry or Henri
Hettie	Pet form of Henrietta
Hilary	From the name Hilarius
Hilda	Means to battle
Hollie	Alternative spelling of the name Holly
Holly	The name comes from the holly bush
Honey	From honey that bees produce
Hope	From the word meaning hope
Hyacinth	From mythology
Ida	Comes from the verb to work
Imogen	From Shakespeare
Iole	From mythology
Irene	The name means peace
Iris	This English name means rainbow
Isabel	From the Spanish version of Elizabeth
Isabella	From Isabel
Isabelle	From the name Isabel
Ivy	From the plant Ivy
Jackie	From Jacqueline; French origin
Jacqueline	Feminine of Jacques; French origin
Jade	From a gemstone
Jane	Female name for John; Biblical name
Janet	From the name Jane
Janette	From the name Jane; French form
Janice	Mix between Jan and Frances; French form
Jasmine	From a flower
Jay	Pet form of Kay or Dee
Jean	From the name Jeanne; French name
Jeane	Form of Jean; French origin
Jennet	English spelling of Jeannette
Jennifer	From the name Guinevere

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Jenny	From the English girl's name Jennifer
Jess	Pet form of Jessica
Jessica	From Shakespeare
Jessie	Pet form of Jean
Jewel	From the gemstone
Jill	From Gillian
Joan	From the name Joanna; from the Biblical origin Johanna
Jodie	Related to Jody, Judah, Judith, Joseph; Hebrew origin (God-like)
Josephine	The analgised version of the French name
Joy	Meaning delight
Joyce	From the name Josce
Judy	From the name Judith
Juliet	English version of the French name Juliette; Roman origin
June	From the month of the year
Justine	Female version of the name Justin; Roman origin
Kaley	From the name Kayley
Kate	From the name Katherine; Greek origin
Katherine	One of the two; Greek origin
Katie	From the name Kate (and therefore Katherine); Greek origin
Katy	From Katie; Greek origin
Kay	Short form of Katherine; Greek origin
Kayla	Variants of Kay; Greek origin
Kayley	Means slender
Keeley	Irish origin
Kelly	Irish origin
Kendra	From Kendrick; from Dutch Hendrick
Kerena	From the name Keren
Kerry	From the Irish county
Kim	From the girl's name Kimberley
Kimberley	From the place in South Africa
Kitty	From the name Katherine
Kyla	From Kyle
Kyle	Means narrow channel; Irish origin
Kylie	Mean boomerang
Lacey	From the surname

Lana	From Alana and Svetlana; Greek origin Helena (Selene = Luna, moon)
Laura	From the Roman name Laurus
Lauren	From the name Laurence; Roman and Italian origin: Lorenzo
Leanne	From the names Lee & Anne
Lee	Clearing
Lena	From names ending in lena or lina like Helena
Leona	From the Roman name Leon
Lesley	From Leslie
Lexi	From Alexandra; Greek origin
Lexy	From Alexandra (see Lexi for more information)
Libby	From the English name Elizabeth
Lilian	Roman name
Lilly	From the flower
Lily	From the flower
Linda	From the Roman name Belinda;
Linda	The beauty; Roman origin
Lindsay	The name originates from the place Lincoln
Lindy	From the name Linda
Linette	A variant of the name Linnette
Liona	From the Roman name Leona
Lisa	From the French name Lise meaning Elizabeth
Livia	From Olivia; Roman name
Liz	From the name Elizabeth
Liza	From the name Elizabeth
Lizzie	From the name Elizabeth
Lola	From Dolores
Loretta	English version of Lauretta
Lorraine	A place name Lorraine in France
Lottie	From the girl's name Charlotte
Louise	Female version of the French name Louis
Lucy	The light one; From the old French name Lucie; Roman origin
Lynette	From the name Lynn
Lynn	From the girl's name Linda
Mabel	The name means lovely
Madeline	A Biblical name

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Madge	From the English name Margaret; Roman origin: Margarita
Madonna	From Biblical name My Lady
Maggie	From the name Margaret; Roman origin
Maggie	Pet form of Margaret; Roman origin
Malvina	A fictitious name
Mandy	To be loved. From the Roman name Amanda
Mara	A English name with Biblical origins
Marcia	Feminine form of Mark
Margaret	From the French name Marguerite; Roman origin
Marice	English version of Maris
Marilyn	Originates from the name Mary; Biblical name
Mary	English girl's name from Marie or Maria
Maud	From the name Matilda
Maura	From St Maura
Maureen	From the Irish name Mairin
Mavis	Means song thrush
Maxine	Feminine version of the Roman name Maximilian "the large one"
May	Pet name for Mary and Margaret
Maya	Influenced by May
Meg	Pet form of Margaret
Melanie	From Melania (dark haired); Roman origin
Melinda	A name derived from Melanie and Lucinda; Roman origin
Melissa	This name means bee; Greek name
Melody	From the melody of a song; Greek and Roman origin
Mercy	Compassionate or forgiveness; Roman origin
Merle	Girl's name from Meriel
Mildred	Means gentle and strong
Millicent	From the words meaning labour and strength
Millie	Pet form of Amelia, Camilla, Melissa
Minnie	From the name Wilhelmina
Mirabelle	Mean wondrous beauty or love; French name
Miranda	Worthy of admiration; From Shakespeare; Roman name
Misty	From the word mist/fog
Molly	Version of the girl's name Mary
Mona	From the name Muadhna meaning noble

Monica	Unique, alone, solitary, nun; Vulgar Latin and Roman origin
Muriel	From the Celtic name Muireall
Myra	Created by a poet in 17th century
Myrtle	From the plant
Nadia	English version of the Russian name Nadezhda; Russian origin
Nancy	Diminutive of Anne
Nell	Pet form of Eleanor / Ellen / Helen
Nerissa	From Shakespeare
Nessa	From Agnessa
Nicola	From the name Nicholas; Greek origin
Nita	Pet form of Anita
Nora	Pet form of names like Eleanor
Noreen	From the Gaelic name Noirin
Norma	Roman origin
Octavia	The eighth child; Roman origin
Olive	From the olive plant; Roman origin
Olivia	From Shakespeare; Roman origin
Opal	From the gemstone; Roman origin
Pamela	Created by a poet Philip Sidney
Pandora	From Greek mythology
Pansy	From the flower
Patience	Means virtuous; Roman origin
Patricia	Feminine version of Patrick; Roman origin: Patricius "noble man"
Patsy	Pet form of Patricia; Roman origin
Paula	Form of Paul; Roman origin: Paulus
Pearl	From the gemstone
Peggy	From Maggie
Penelope	From Greek mythology
Petra	Stone; Female version of Peter; Roman origin
Petula	Origin Roman
Philippa	From the name Philip; Greek name
Philomena	From a saint; Greek origin
Phoebe	From the moon goddess; Greek name
Phyllis	From Greek mythology
Pippa	From the English girl's name Philippa; Greek origin

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Polly	Variant of Molly
Poppy	From the name of the flower
Primrose	From the flower
Prudence	From the verb prudent
Prunella	Plum colour; Roman origin
Queenie	Name for "little Queen"
Rachel	A Biblical name
Raine	Queen; French name
Reanna	From Deanna
Reenie	From the name Rene
Regina	Roman name "Queen"
Rhoda	This girl's name means rose
Rikki	Girl's version of the name Ricky
Rina	A pet name for Christina
Rita	From the Roman name Margarita
Robin	Short form of Robert used for females and males
Ronnie	From Veronica, Greek and Roman origin
Rosalind	Means tender horse
Roseanne	Mix between Rose and Ann
Rose	From the flower; Roman origin
Rosemary	From the herb
Rosie	Pet form of Rosemary
Rowena	Fame and joy
Roxanne	Greek origin: Roxana; Name of the Indian wife of Alexander the Great
Ruby	From the red gemstone
Sabella	From the girl's name Isabella
Sabrina	From the Celtic legend give name to Severn River
Sadie	From the name Sarah
Sally	From the name Sarah
Samantha	Aramaric (Bible) origin: good listener
Sandra	From the name Alexandra or Alessandra; Greek origin: defender
Sandy	From the name Alexandra; Greek origin: defender
Sapphire	Blue diamond or gem; Greek and Roman origin
Scarlett	A person who dyes fabric in red colour
Selena	Greek origin: the Goddess of the Moon

Shannah	Arabic unknown
Shannon	From the river in Ireland
Sharon	From the place in the Bible
Sheila	From the Gaelic name Sile
Shirley	Clear and bright; From a place in England; shire is a clear place
Silver	From the metal
Sissy	From the name Cicely; also short for Elizabeth
Skye	From the English name Sky
Sue	Pet form of Susan
Summer	From the season
Susan	From the Biblical name Susannah
Sybil	From the Greek name Sibylla
Sylvia	From Silvia
Tammy	Pet form of Tamara; Hebrew origin
Tamsin	Linked to the name Thomas; from the Bible
Tansy	From the flower
Tara	This English name means hill
Tasha	Short for Natasha, Russian origin
Tawny	From the colour of the owl
Teri	From the name Terry
Tessa	From Theresa
Thelma	Means wish
Tiffany	Means epiphany
Tilda	From Matilda
Tori	From Victoria; Roman origin
Tracy	From the French place
Trina	From Katrina; Greek origin: each of the two
Trisha	From Patricia, Roman origin
Trixie	Form of Beatrix, Roman origin
Trudy	From Gertrude or Ermintrude
Unity	Manes Unity / Quality; Roman origin
Ursa	Form of Ursula; Roman origin: little she-bear
Ursula	From the Roman name Ursula meaning "little she-bear"
Val	Healthy and strong; from Valerie; from the Roman name Valerius
Valda	Inspired by Linda

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Valene	Australian background
Valerie	Means healthy and strong
Vanessa	Created by Jonathan Swift; from the Biblical name Esther
Velma	Based on Thelma or Selma
Vera	Has a Russian/Slavic origin
Verity	Means truth; Raman origin
Verona	Roman city name in northern Italy
Vicky	Pet form of Victoria
Victoria	Means victorious; Roman origin
Viola	Means violet; Roman origin
Violet	From the flower; Roman origin Violeta
Virginia	From the name Virgil; Roman origin
Vita	Pet form of Victoria, Roman origin
Vivian	Life; Roman origin
Wanda	Wanderer; German origin
Wendy	form of Wanda; Invented in the play Peter Pan
Whitney	After places in England
Willa	From the name William
Willow	From the tree
Wilona	From Wilma
Winifred	Joy and Peace
Wynne	Short form of Winifred
Xenia	Hospitality and stranger
Xenthe	Means yellow and bright
Yasmin	From Jasmin; Arabic origin
Yolanda	Greek origin
Zanna	From Suzannah; Biblical name
Zelda	Greek origin
Zelene	Origin unknown; Greek and Slavonic origin
Zera	Means Seeds; Greek origin
Zoe	Means Life; Greek origin

Men's Given Names

Name	Description
Abbott	Old English name for the head of a religious community
Abe	Pet form of the name Abraham
Addison	Old English name, means son of Adam
Adrian	From the Latin Name Hadrianus
Aiken	Old English boy's name meaning made of oak
Ainsley	Likely from the place names Annesley or Ansley
Al	Pet name from name starting with the letter Al
Alan	or Alaine; Of Celtic / Brittonic origins; can mean "deer" but also "fox"
Alaric	Derived from the words meaning All and Ruler
Alban	An old British name. It means Scotland (Albany) in Welsh.
Albert	Derived from the words meaning Noble and Bright
Albion	Same origins as Alban
Aldrich	Old and wise leader
Alec	Short name for Alexander
Alex	Short name for Alexander
Alexander	From the Greek name Alexandros
Alexis	From the Greek name Alexius
Alf	Pet form of the English name Alfred
Alfie	Pet form of the English name Alfred
Alfred	It means supernaturally and wise
Alger	It is derived from words meaning supernaturally and spear
Algernon	From word grenon meaning moustache
Alick	Different spelling of Alec
Allan	Variant of Alan
Allen	Variant of Alan
Alton	From a town in England
Alvin	Derived from the words meaning Supernatural + Friend
Ambrose	From the Latin name Ambrosius- means immortal
Andrew	English form of Andreas; Greek origin
Andy	Pet form of Andrew; Greek origin: Andreas
Anthony	From the Roman family name Antonius
Archer	From the man who's job was a bowman; Roman origin
Armstrong	Possibly originated from a person with Strong Arms

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Arnold	From the words meaning Eagle and Ruler
Ashley	Name comes from the tree Ash
Aston	From the place names (meaning East settlement)
Atwater	From the words meaning Water Side
Aubrey	English name meaning Supernatural Power
Austin	From the Latin name Augustinus
Avery	Closely associated to Alfred
Bailey	Associated with the job of the bailiff
Baldwin	Means brave friend
Barclay	From the English place Berkeley
Barrett	From the name Baret
Barnaby	A Biblical name from the name Barnabas
Bartholomew	With Biblical origins
Barton	From English places meaning barley settlements
Basil	From Greek meaning Royal
Baxter	From the name Baker
Baz	Pet form of Barry
Benedict	Means Blessed
Benjamin	Biblical origin
Bennett	From the name Benedict
Benson	Originates from the name Ben
Bentley	Means grass clearing
Berkley	From the boy's name Barclay
Bernard	Means strong/brave bear
Bert	Pet name for Albert
Bill	Pet name of William
Blake	A person with hair or skin either Fair or Dark
Bob	Pet for of Robert; Low German origin Rupert
Bobby	Pet for of Robert; Low German origin Rupert
Bond	Means farmer
Brad	Short for the name Brafley or Bradford
Bradley	from the Broad Clearing
Brent	From the Steep Hill in Dorset and Summerset
Bret	A person who comes from Brittany
Brewster	From the occupation Brewer

Brian	Means high and noble; Irish origin
Brigham	Means Bridge Settler
Brooke	After a small stream
Bruce	From the Scottish surname
Bruno	Shield, armour, camouflage, brown
Bryant	Comes from the English boy's name Brian
Buck	Means male strong deer
Bud	From the term buddy
Burgess	Citizen of a town called Burgeis
Burton	After place names in England with a Fortress
Byron	Means cattle shed / or person who lives there
Cade	Means something round and lumpish
Caesar	Roman family name
Caldwell	Means cold Well
Calvert	Means shepherd or cowboy
Calvin	From the French surname
Carl	From the German boy's name Karl
Carlton	Places with the same origin of Charlton
Carter	Name comes from a person who drives a cart
Carver	Name comes from a person with a trade as a wood carver
Cary	From a river in Devon or Summerset
Casey	From the place name Cayce
Cassian	From the Roman name Cassius
Cecil	From a Welsh Celtic name Seissyllt
Cedric	From the Irish name Cerdic
Chad	From old English boys name Ceadda who was a saint
Chandler	Originates from a person who made candles
Chapman	Middle ages name that means Merchant
Charles	Means 'free man'; from the German name Karl; Roman form: Carolus
Charlie	Pet form of Charles
Charlton	Made popular by Charlton Heston. Old English name Ceorlatun
Chase	Originates from a huntsman
Chester	From people who came from the English place Chester
Chris	Pet form of the name Christopher; Greek origin
Christian	From the name Chrisianus which means a Christian; Greek origin

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Christopher	From the Greek name Khristophoros and means 'Christ Bearer'
Chuck	Mainly US based term of endearment
Clarence	Linked to famous royal princes
Claude	From the Latin name Claudius meaning 'Lame'
Clay	Pet name of Clayton
Clayton	From people who lived in the clay settlement
Clement	From the Latin name Clemens
Cliff	Short form of Clifford
Clifford	Originates from the words Cliff and ford
Clifton	Related to the words cliff, slop and riverbank
Clive	Found in various English locations – meaning cliff or slope
Clyde	From the Scottish river
Cole	Old English male name Cola – meaning black
Coleman	From a man who burns cole
Colin	Short form of Nicholas
Conrad	Means bold in counsel; Proto Germanic origin
Constant	Means steadfast
Conway	Celtic name and it means holy river
Corwin	This name means from beyond a hill
Courtney	Originates from places in Northern France
Craig	Means rocky from the Gaelic word creag
Crispin	Means curly headed
Crosby	This English boy's name means dweller by town cross
Curtis	This name means courteous; Anglo-Norman origin
Cuthbert	Middle English boy's name meaning famous and bright
Cyril	Lord like from Greek name Kyrillos
Dale	Someone who lived in a valley
Daley	This name means gathering (from the Gaelic word dalaigh)
Dalton	A person from a valley town
Damian	From the Greek name Damianos
Damon	Means to tame
Dane	Means Dean originated South East England
Daniel	Means God is my Judge in Hebrew; from the Bible
Danny	A pet form of Daniel; from the Bible
Darcy	From the French family name d'Arcy

Darell	From the surname d'Airelle
Darren	Welsh / Irish origin; meaning "edge" or "beyond the edge"
Davy	Pet form of David
Dean	Someone who lived in a valley; Greek origin: Dekanos "the tenth child"
Del	Pet form of Derek
Den	An English name short for Dennis
Dennis	From Greek name Dionysios
Dene	An alternative spelling for Dean
Denton	Meaning valley settlement
Denzil	After the place Denzell in Cornwall
Derek	Related to the German name Theodoric
Derick	Another spelling of the name Derek
Des	Short for Desmond
Desmond	A local name from someone from Munster
Dexter	The right-handed one; Roman origin
Digby	Name originating from Lincolnshire meaning ditch settlement
Dominic	From the Roman name that means Lord
Don	Pet form of Dominic; Roman origin
Donald	From Gaelic name Domhnall
Doran	Meaning exile wanderer
Dorian	Created by Oscar Wilde
Doug	English name short for Douglass
Douglas	Meaning black river
Doyle	English variant of Dougal
Drogo	Possibly means ghostly/phantom
Drake	Old English name that means Dragon; Greek and Roman origin
Dudley	From the place name in Birmingham
Duncan	From the Gaelic name Donnchadh
Dunstan	Old English name meaning dark stone
Dustin	German / Norse origin; Old Norse Þorsteinn / Thorstein = Thor's stone
Duggie	English name short for Dougless
Dwayne	Originates from the name Duane
Dwight	Comes from the name Diot and related to Dennis, Greek origin
Earl	Nobleman or noble warrior-king
Ebenezer	Means rock or stone of help; from the Bible

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Ed	Pet form of Edward
Eddie	Pet form of Edward
Eden	From the name Edun
Edgar	Names composed of the words that mean fortunate/rich and spear
Edric	The name means rich and powerful
Edmond	Old English name meaning prosperous protector
Edwin	Mean prosperus friend
Egbert	Means bright of edge of a sword
Elbert	English name a variant of the name Albert meaning nobly and bright
Eldon	After the place name in Durham
Ellis	From the name Elias
Elmer	Old English name meaning Old and Noble
Eliot	Version of Elias; from the Bible
Elliot	Version of Elias; from the Bible
Elton	Local name from places in England
Ellery	Old English name meaning alder tree
Elmer	Means noble and famous
Elton	Local name from places in England
Elvis	Made famous by Elvis Presley
Emerson	Old English boy's name that means the son of Emery
Emmett	From the female name Emmet
Erasmus	Means to love
Eric	Means always a ruler
Ernest	From eorost (battle to death)
Errol	From a placename
Esmond	From the words protective and grace
Eugene	From Eugenios
Everett	Variant of the name Everard
Name	Description
Fabian	English name from the Latin name Fabricius
Fenton	Is a place name in the North of England and it means marsh lands
Ferdinand	From the name Ferdinando
Ferris	Name of a person with a job as an iron worker
Fletcher	Originates from the maker of arrows
Floyd	A variant from the name Lloyd

Ford	A person who lived by a river
Forrest	A person who lived by a forrest
Francis	English name for Francesco meaning: little Frank
Franklin	Means freeman = "not of noble birth"
Fred	Pet form of Frederick or Alfred
Freddie	Pet name for Fred
Frank	Short form of Francis; like "France" after the German tribe "the Franks"
Frederick	Name mean peaceful powerful ruler
Freeman	A Freeman
Garfield	Means triangular field
Garrison	From the place in Yorkshire
Gary	From Gar meaning spear
Gardner	This name comes from someone who works in a garden
Garret	Originate from the ane Gerard
Garrick	Means spear king or to govern with a spear
Garth	From the name Gareth
Gavin	Scottish Celtic or Germanic origin; name of a nephew of King Arthur
Gaylord	From the name Gaillard
Gene	Pet form of Eugene
George	From the Roman name Georgius
Ged	Pet form of Gerard
Geoffrey	A name of Germanic origin
Gerard	Mean brave strong spear
Gerald	Means spear ruler
Georgie	Pet form of George
Gerry	Pet form of Jerry
Gilbert	From the words pledge famous and bright
Giles	From the name Aegidium
Ginger	Someone with red hair
Glen	Means a valley, Gaelic origin
Goddard	From old English name Godeheard
Godfrey	Means god's peace
Godwin	From the names god and friends
Goodwin	Means good friend
Graham	From the place Lincolnshire

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Grant	Means large
Granville	From places in Normandy
Greg	Short form of Gregory
Grayson	Son of a man with grey hair
Gregory	Means watchful
Greville	From the Norman surname Greville
Gresham	Means a village with grazing land
Grover	Dweller in the grove of trees
Gyles	Variant of Giles
Guy	Norman-French form of the German name Wido (forest); Italian:Guido
Hadden	English boys name meaning a hill with heather
Hadley	Old English origin meaning heath moorland
Hadwin	English origin, meaning friend in war
Halbert	English boy's name meaning bright stone
Hale	Hale is a place name than means a 'hero for a hall'
Halsey	Place name, island of Hal
Hannibal	Hannibal form of the name Annible
Hanley	Place name meaning a person from the high meadow
Happy	This name means happy and merry
Harding	Means strong, brave from the name Hearing.
Harlan	A place name in England. That means 'land of the hares'
Harley	Army Meadow
Harry	English pet for of Hendry; Dutch: Hendrick; German: Heinrich
Harper	Someone who played a harp
Harold	From the names army and ruler
Harrison	Son of Harry
Hartley	Place names in England
Harvey	English name of Breton origin meaning battle worthy
Heath	From Heath or Moorland
Hector	From the Greek name ekhein means to restrain.
Hedley	From places in Durham. Means wood clearing
Henry	English boy's name meaning home ruler.
Herb	Short for Herbert.
Herbert	Means famous army.
Herman	Herman is derived from the name Hermann.

Hilary	From the word hilarious.
Homer	From the Greek name Homeros.
Hopkin	Hopkin from the name Robert.
Horace	From the Greek name Horatio.
Horati	A variant of Horace.
Howard	Used as a surname as well first name.
Howell	Howell from Welsh name Hywel.
Hubert	Means famous heart or spirit.
Hugh	From hug meaning heart or spirit.
Hughie	Hughie familiar form of Hugh.
Humbert	This name means famous warrior.
Humphrey	Means peaceful warrior.
Hunter	Someone who hunts
Ike	A form of Isaac.
Ingram	Ingram from medieval name Engelram.
Irving	Local place name in near Dumfries.
Isaiah	Biblical name meaning god is salvation.
Ivor	This male name means bowed warrior.
Jack	The English name is a pet form of the Biblical name John.
Jackie	Pet form of Jack.
Jackson	Jackson means the son of Jack.
Jacob	Biblical name from the Hebrew name Yaakov.
Jake	English name derived from Jack.
Jamie	A pet name for James
James	Roman form of the Biblical name Iacobus or Iacomus.
Jarvis	English name from the Norman name Gervaise.
Jason	From Greek mythology Iason.
Jasper	A bearer of treasure (as in the 3 wise men)
Jed	Short for Jedidiah.
Jeff	Pet form of Jeffrey.
Jeffrey	English name from Geoffrey
Jefferson	Son of Jeffrey.
Jenson	Means son of Jens.
Jeremy	English version of Jeremiah.
Jermaine	Male name from Germaine.

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Jerome	means holy name.
Jerrard	Jerrard from the name Gerard.
Jerrold	Jerrold from Gerald.
Jerry	Pet form of Jeremy.
Jesse	Meaning gift.
Jethro	Derived from Hebrew name Ithra; from the Bible
Jim	Pet form of the English boy's name James. Biblical name
Jimmy	Jimmy from Jim.
Joe	Short for Joseph; from the Bible
Jody	Jody can be a male name but it's more commonly female name.
Joey	Pet form of Joe.
John	Anglicised version of Ioannes or Iohannes; from the Bible
Johnathan	Variant of Jonathan.
Johnny	Pet form of John; from the Bible
Jordan	Jordan from the river Jordan, Israel.
Joseph	From Yosef meaning God will make you fertile; from the Bible
Josh	Pet form of Joshua; from the Bible
Judd	Judd pet form of Jordan; from the Bible
Jude	Jude from the name Judas; from the Bible
Julian	English version of the Roman name Iulius or Julius.
Justin	English version of the Roman name Iustus, Justus or Justinian.
Keith	English name from the place in East Lothian.
Kelly	Kelly is an Irish boy's name for Ceallagh.
Kelsey	Means ship's victory.
Kelvin	From the river that branches into the Clyde.
Kemp	Means athlete or wrestler.
Ken	Pet form of Kenneth.
Kendrick	From Dutch Hendrick
Kenelm	Means bold helmet protector.
Kennard	Kennard from the middle ages- could mean royal guard.
Kenneth	From the Gaelic (Celtic) names Cinaed and Cainnech.
Kent	Someone from Kent in England.
Kenton	Kenton local places in England.
Kermit	Means son of Dermot.
Kerr	Someone who dwells by brushwood

Kerry	From the Irish county of Kerry.
Kevin	From Gaelic (Celtic) name Caimhin.
King	From the name of the monarch.
Kingsley	From places in Hampshire and Staffordshire. Means old wood.
Kit	Pet name of Christopher.
Kyran	English spelling of Kieran.
Lacey	People from Lassy in France.
Lambert	Lambert means famous land.
Lance	Lance from the weapon a lance.
Lancelot	Celtic / Welsh origin.
Larry	Pet form of Lawrence. Roman origin
Laurel	Meaning a tree.
Laurence	A person from Laurentius. Roman origin
Lawrence	Anglicised form of Laurance. Roman origin
Lee	Means wood or clearing.
Leighton	Means leek settlement.
Leland	Someone from a fallow land.
Len	Len is short for Leonard. Roman origin
Lennard	English spelling of Leonard. Roman origin: "like a lion"
Lenny	Variation of Lenny. Roman origin
Leo	Leo means a lion. Roman origin
Leon	A form of Leo. Roman origin
Leonard	Meaning lion. Roman origin
Leopold	Meaning brave people.
Leroy	Means the king. French and Roman origin
Les	Short for Lesley
Lesley	Lesley name variant of Leslie
Lester	name is from the English city Leicester.
Lewie	name is from the English city Leicester.
Lex	Pet name for Alex. Greek origin
Lincoln	From the English city Lincoln. Roman origin: Lindum Colonia
Linden	Means the lime tree.
Lindon	Variation of Linden.
Linsay	Linsay wetlands belonging to Lincon.
Linford	A mix of the words lime tree and ford.

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Linton	Place names in England.
Lionel	From the name Leon. Roman origin
Lonnie	Origin unknown.
Lorne	Origin unknown.
Louie	A variant of Louis.
Lovell	Means club wolf.
Lucas	A form of Luke; from the Bible
Ludo	Pet form of Ludovic.
Luke	Luke from name Loukas; from the Bible
Luther	Means people army.
Lyndon	A place in Leicestershire.
Lyle	Someone who live on an island.
Magnus	Mean's great
Malcolm	Means 'dovotee of St Columba'
Mallory	Means unhappy or unlucky
Manfred	Means peace man
Manley	Places in England (Devon and Cheshire)
Marc	From the name Marcus (see Mark). Roman origin: Marcus
Marian	From the name Marion
Mark	From the name Marcus; Roman origin
Marlon	Made famous by Marlon Brando
Marmaduke	Created by Brad Anderson, the cartoonist
Marsh	Someone who lives by a march
Marshall	Means horse worker
Martin	From the Roman god of War
Marty	Pet form of Martin
Marvin	From Mervyn
Mason	Someone who works with stone
Matt	Pet from of Matthew; from the Bible
Matthew	Biblical name meaning 'gift of god'
Maurice	English boys name from the Latin name Mauricius
Max	Short form the name Maximilian and Maxwell
Maxwell	After the place name on the river Tweed
Maynard	Means strong and brave
Mel	Short for Melvin; Celtic / Welsh / Irish origin

Melville	Means bad settlement
Melvin	Scottish / Celtic family name
Merlin	From the Welsh (Celtic) name Myrddin
Michael	Biblical name that means like God
Mick	Pet name for Michael
Mike	Pet name for Michael
Milburn	A place name
Miles	One thousand; Roman origin
Milo	Form of Miles; Roman origin
Milton	Settlement with a mill
Monroe	Anglisised version of Munro
Montague	Placename Name
Montgomery	Places name in northern France
Monty	Pet for of Montgomery
Morris	From Maurice
Mortimer	Means dead sea
Morton	Place by the the moor
Nathaniel	Means the gift of God; from the Bible
Neal	Form of Neil
Ned	Pet form of Edward
Neil	From Gaelic / Celtic name Niall
Nelson	Derived from Neil or Nell meaning "the son of Neil"
Neville	New settlement; Roman origin: Nova Villa
Nicholas	Means peoples' victory
Nigel	Means black, Roman origin
Noah	Biblical name possibly means 'rest'
Norman	Means a man from the North
Norris	Means a man from the North
Obadiah	Servant of God
Oliver	English male name derived from the olive tree
Ollie	Pet name for Oliver
Omar	Biblical name
Orson	Means like the Bear cub
Orville	Created by Fanny Burney
Osbert	Famous / Bright God

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Oscar	Means deers' friend
Osmond	Means God's protector
Oswald	God's rule
Otis	Son of Ote
Paddy	Pet name for Patrick
Pancras	From Greek name Pankratos
Pat	Pet name for Patrick
Patrick	Roman origin: Patricius "noble man"
Paul	From Paulus meaning Small
Pearce	A form of Pierce
Perce	Pet form of Percy
Percival	From the French name Perceval
Percy	Pet form of Percival
Perry	Someone who lived by a pear tree
Peter	Popular Biblical name from the Roman name: Petrus or Petros "stone"
Phil	Short form of Philip; Greek origin
Philbert	Means most bright
Philip	From a person who loves horses; Greek origin
Philo	From the name Philon
Pierce	From the name Piers
Piers	Middle English male name derived from of Peter
Quentin	From the Roman name Quintinus "the fifth little child"
Quincy	From the northern French "the fifth one"
Quinn	Meaning the wise man
Quintus	Meaning 5th
Rafe	Short for Ralph
Ralph	Means counsel wolf
Randall	From Randolph
Randolph	Means shield like a wolf
Randy	Pet forms of Randall or Randolph
Raphael	Means god heals
Ray	English name short for Raymond
Raymond	This name means wise protector
Reg	Pet name for Reginald
Reggie	Pet form of Reg

Reginald	From the name Reginaldus meaning "like a king"; Roman origin
Reid	Someone with red hair
Remus	Brother of the Roma Romulas
Renfred	Peacemaker
Rex	This Roman name means king
Reynard	Means brave decision
Rich	Pet form of Richard
Richard	Means powerful and brave
Richie	Pet form of Richard
Ridley	Name from various places in England
Riley	Means rye meadow
Robert	English name means bright or famous fame: German Rupert
Robin	Pet form of Robert
Rocky	From the name Rocco
Rod	English pet form of the name Rodney and Roderick
Roderick	Means prominent ruler, of Germanic origin
Rodney	Originates from a place name. Made popular by Admiral Lord Rodney.
Roger	English boy's name meaning famous spear
Roland	English name meaning famous land
Rolf	Famous wolf
Roly	Pet form of Roland
Ronald	English / Scottish name from Rognvaldr
Ronnie	Short form of the name Ronald
Ross	Someone who come from the headland
Rowan	Means little red one
Rowley	From the name Roly
Roy	Nickname of someone with red hair
Royle	Means rye hill
Rufus	Nickname of someone with red hair
Rupert	Version of the name Robert
Russ	English name short for Russell
Russell	Mean little red person
Rusty	Someone with red hair
Ryan	Irish / Celtic origin: minor king
Samson	Biblical name from Shimshon

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Samuel	Biblical name from Shemuel
Sandford	Version of Sanford
Sandy	Pet name of Alexander
Sanford	English place name
Scott	Someone from Scotland
Sebastian	Man from the place Sebasta
Selwyn	German / Anglo-Saxon origin "Castle friend" or "friend in the castle"
Seymour	From placename in Normandy Saint Maur
Shane	from Sean
Shaun	from Sean
Shawn	from Sean
Sheldon	From place names in England
Shelley	Place names in England
Sidney	A man who comes from the land
Sigmund	Means victorious protector
Sylvester	A person from the woods
Simon	English male name from Simeon
Sinclair	From Saint-Clair in Normandy
Skipper	From the captain of a ship
Spencer	Made famous by the actor Spencer Tracy
Spike	Some male with Spiky hair
Stacy	Name for men and women; Greek: Eustace / Anastasia (resurrection)
Stan	Pet form of the name Stanley
Stanley	From the place names in England
Stephan	Variant of Stephen
Stephen	Derived from the Greek name Stephanos
Sterling	High Quality
Stewart	Scottish family name meaning a steward
Stuart	Scottish family name meaning a steward
Tad	Short for Tadhg
Taylor	Name from a person with the occupation of a tailor
Ted	Pet form of Edward (rich guard)
Teddy	Pet form of Theodore (gift of God); Roman origin
Terence	From the Roman name Terentius
Terry	English boy's name that means tribe power

Theo	Pet name for Theodore (gift of God); Roman origin
Theobold	Means brave people
Theodore	Means god's gift; Roman origin
Theo	Pet name for Theodore; Roman origin
Thomas	Thomas is a Biblical name and popular in England
Timothy	Means God's honour; from the Bible
Toby	English form of Tobias; Greek origin: my good is Jahwe
Todd	This English name means fox
Tom	Pet form of Thomas; from the Bible
Tommy	Pet form of Thomas; from the Bible
Tony	Short version of Anthony; Roman origin: Antonius "gentile"
Travis	From someone who collects a tolls
Tristan	Form of Tristram; Celtic origin
Tristram	From a Celtic legend
Troy	Named after the city Troy
Truman	Means a trustful / loyal man
Tyler	Occupation of someone who tiled the roofs
Tyrone	From the county in Northern Ireland
Ulric	from Wolfric which means wolf ruler
Urban	Means city dweller
Valentine	Means healthy and strong; Roman origin
Vere	Place names in France
Vergil	From the name Virgil; Roman origin: Vergilius
Vernon	Place names in France
Victor	The English names means conqueror; Roman origin
Vince	Short form of Vincent
Vincent	Means conquering
Virgil	from Roman Vergilius
Waally	Pert form of Walter
Wade	A person who lives by a ford
Waldo	Means ruler
Wallace	Means foreigner
Walter	Composed of the elements army ruler
Ward	Guard
Warren	Popular name originating from Normandy

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Warwick	From the place near Birmingham in England
Watkin	Also common as a surname
Wayne	A person who made carts
Webster	From a person who weaves
Wesley	Popular from John Wesley the founder of the methodist church
Wilberforce	Name originating from North Yorkshire
Wilbur	Desire and fortress
Wilfrid	Means desire peace
Will	Short form William
Willard	Means desire and brave
William	from the Germanic name Wilhelm meaning determined Protection
Wilmot	Pet form of Will
Windsor	From the place name in England
Winston	Means joy and stone
Winthrop	Winthrop is a place name in England
Winton	Mean enclosed pasture
Woody	Short form of Woodrow
Woodrow	Dweller in a row of houses near the wood
Zach	Short name for Zachary; from the Bible
Zachary	From the name Zachariah; from the Bible
Zeph	Short for Zephaniah; from the Bible

FAMILY NAMES, SURNAMES, OR LAST NAMES

A family name (also called surname, byname or last name) is a name shared by people in the same family. Different cultures have different orders for a person's family name and given name. In English, the family name is always at the end, so it is also called a last name or surname. Children usually have the same family name as their father. A married woman often changes her family name to be the same as her husband. For example, Mary Brown married John Smith and she changed her name to Mary Smith. They had two children, David Smith and Kate Smith. Smith is the family name shared by the parents Mary and John, and their children David and Kate. But, if David Smith died without having any children, and Kate married and changed her last name, then the last name would have gone from the male line, so it has died out.

Many languages put the family name first. Some give a child the mother's family name. Some use more complex names that list the family name of both parents, and sometimes additional family relations.

A surname or family name is a name added to a given name. In many cases, a surname is a family name and many dictionaries define "surname" as a synonym of "family name". In the English-speaking world, it is commonly synonymous with last name because it is usually placed at the end of a person's full name, after any given names.

The concept of a "surname" is a relatively recent historical development, evolving from a medieval naming practice called a "byname". Based on an individual's occupation or area of residence, a byname would be used in situations where more than one person had the same name.

Origin of Family names

Family names can come from given names, names of occupations, names of location or places, and from nicknames.

A Family Name derived from a given name

These are the oldest and most common type of surname. They may be a

simple first name such as "Wilhelm," a patronymic such as "Andersen," a matronymic such as "Beaton," or a clan name such as "O'Brien." Multiple surnames may be derived from a single given name.

A person's last name indicates the first name of his or her father (patronymic) or in some cases of his or her mother (matronymic). Many common family names from Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Iceland) are a result of this naming practice, such as *Hansen* (son of Hans), *Johanson* or *Johansen* (son of Johan) and *Olson* or *Olsen* (son of Ole). From a similar practice in Scotland come names such as *McDonalds* or *Mac Alister*, and from Ireland we have *O'Brian* or *O'Connor*.

A Family Name derived from an occupation

Occupational names include such simple examples as Smith (for a smith), Miller (for a miller), Farmer (for farm tax collectors or sometimes farmers), Thatcher (for a thatcher), Shepherd (for a shepherd), Potter (for a potter), and so on, as well as non-English ones, such as the German Eisenhauer (iron hewer, later Anglicised in America as Eisenhower) or Schneider (tailor) - or indeed, as in English, Schmidt (smith). There are also more complicated names based on occupational titles. In England it was common for servants to take a modified version of their employer's occupation or first name as their last name, adding the letter s to the word, although this formation could also be a patronymic. For instance, the surname Vickers is thought to have arisen as an occupational name adopted by the servant of a vicar, while Roberts could have been adopted by either the son or the servant of a man named Robert. Examples: Archer, Bailey, Baker, Brewer, Butcher, Carter, Chandler, Clark, Collier, Cooper, Cook, Carpenter, Dempster, Dyer, Farmer, Faulkner, Fisher, Fletcher, Fowler, Fuller, Gardener, Glover, Hayward, Hawkins, Head, Hunt or Hunter, Judge, Knight, Miller, Mason, Page, Palmer, Parker, Porter, Potter, Sawyer, Slater, Smith, Stringer, Taylor, Thatcher, Turner, Walker, Weaver, Woodman and Wright (or variations such as Cartwright and Wainwright).

A Family Name derived from a place name

Location (toponymic, habitation) names derive from the inhabited location associated with the person given that name. Most of those names were given to the family by the monarch and have therefore an aristocratic or noble background. Such locations can be any type of settlement that was or is ruled by a noble family, such as: homesteads, farms, enclosures, villages, hamlets, strongholds, estates or cottages.

A Family Name derived from a nickname

This is the broadest class of surnames, encompassing many types of origin. These include names, also known as eke-names, based on appearance such as "Schwartzkopf" (black head), "Short," and possibly "Caesar", and names based on temperament and personality such as "Daft", "Gutman", and "Maiden", which, according to a number of sources, was an English nickname meaning "effeminate". Name examples for personal characteristics are Short, Brown, Black, Whitehead, Young, Long, White.

Lesson on names

Names are important. It is a custom that our students learn some basics about our names, such as origin and meaning. The simplest name finder game goes like this: Each student writes quickly 5 names on a piece of paper or the blackboard. The learner should choose names of which they do not know their meanings or where they come from. They can choose their own names as well as names of companies of friends. Teacher and learners check in this book if they find explanations. We can either use given names or family names. Some of the students may learn for the very first time what their name really means and they might become interested in history.

The following list shows you a selection of family names (including their origin and meaning) that are in use in English-speaking countries.

Family Names

AAGESEN: Variant spelling of the Scandinavian surname Aageson, meaning "son of Aage."
 AAGESON (ä'ge-son): Scandinavian surname meaning "son of Aage," a Danish personal name, now usually spelled Åge, meaning "father." Svend Aageson was a 12th century Scandinavian writer. Also spelled Aagesen.
 AARESTRUP (ä're-ströp): Danish surname, probably composed of a variant of Åre, from Old Norse ari "eagle," and þorp/prop, "village," hence "eagle village."
 AARON (är'ōn or ar'ōn): English surname derived from the personal name Aaron, from Hebrew Aharon (Greek Aarōn), meaning "high mountain."
 ABAELARD: German form of the French surname Abélard, via Latin Abaelardus, meaning "noble strength."
 ABAELARDUS: Latin form of the French surname Abélard, meaning "noble strength."
 ABAFI (o'bo-fē): Variant spelling of the Transylvanian royal patronymic surname Apafi, meaning "son of Appa," a Hungarian personal name meaning "father."
 ABAILARD: Variant spelling of the French surname Abélard, meaning "noble strength."
 ABAMONTI (ä-bä-mon'tē): Variant of the Spanish surname Albamonte, meaning "white mountain."
 ABANO (ä'bä-nō): Italian surname derived from the place name Abano, called by the Romans Aponus, a town in the province of Padua, Italy, famous for its healing hot springs, meaning "taking off the pain." Pietro d'Apono (also de Apono) was an Italian physician and philosopher who took his name from this town; he was denounced by the Inquisition as a magician.
 ABARBANEL: Variant of the Spanish-Jewish surname Abravanel, meaning "little Abraham," a personal name meaning "father of a multitude." Michael Gary Abarbanel is a retired minor league baseball pitcher.
 ABASALO (ä-bä-sä'lō): Variant form of the Basque surname Abasolo, meaning "priest-meadow." Mariano Abasalo was a Mexican-born soldier who joined the revolutionary movement of Hidalgo in 1810. He was captured and sent a prisoner to Spain where he died in confinement.
 ABASOLO: Basque surname composed of the elements abas "priest" and solo "meadow," hence "priest-meadow."
 ABBADIE (ä-bä-dē'): Shortened form of the French surname d'Abbadie, meaning "(of the) abbey."
 ABBAMONTE (ä-bä-mon'tē): Variant of the Spanish surname Albamonte, meaning "white mountain."
 ABBATE (ä-bä'te): Anglicised form of the Italian surname Dell'Abate, meaning "abbot, father, priest." Niccolò dell'Abate was an Italian painter who assisted in decorating the palace at Fontainebleau.
 ABBATTINI: Italian surname meaning "little priest." Compare with Abbatucci.
 ABBATUCCI (ä-bä-tü'sē): Italian patronymic surname meaning "descendant of a priest." Jacques Pierre Abbatucci was a Corsican partizan commander, an antagonist of Paoli and later a division general in the French service in Italy. Compare with Abbattini.
 ABBE (ab'i): English surname, meaning "priest." Cleveland Abbe was an American

astronomer and meteorologist.

ABBEY (ab'ɪ): Variant spelling of the English surname Abbe, meaning "priest." Edwin Austin Abbey was an American painter and illustrator.

ABBOT (ab'ɒt): Variant spelling of the English surname Abbott, meaning "abbot, father, priest."

ABBOTT (ab'ɒt): English occupational surname meaning "abbot, father, priest," from Latin abbas "priest," from Greek abbas, from Aramaic aba "father." This name predates the Anglo-Saxons and is also common in Scotland. Also spelled Abbot.

ABDALLAH (abd-al'ah): Arabic personal name and surname meaning "servant of God." Yasim ben Abdallah was an Arabian Mussulman, appointed by a sheik of Lamtouna to instruct a tribe of Berbers in the Atlas mountains in the faith of Islam. But the name is best remembered for being the name of Muhammad's father who was born at Mecca about 545, and died at Medina in 570.

ABEGG (ä'beg): German and Swiss topographic surname, composed of the elements ab "off" and egg/eck(e) "corner, promontory," hence "lives near the corner of a mountain." Julius Friedrich Heinrich Abegg, German jurist, and author of "Versuch einer Geschichte der Preußischen Civil-Prozeß-Gesetzgebung."

ABEGGLEN: Swabian German diminutive form of the surname Abegg, hence "little Abegg."

ABEL (E. ä'bel, G. ä'bel): Anglo-Scottish and German surname derived from Biblical Abel (Hebrew Hebel), meaning "vanity or vapour." Also spelled Abell.

ABELA: Maltese form of the Catalan surname Abella, probably meaning "bee," denoting an active person, or "bee-keeper" if occupational.

ABELARD (ab'e-lärd): Old German name, meaning "noble strength."

ABÉLARD (ä-bä-lär): French form of the German surname Abelard, meaning "noble strength." Pierre Abelard, a noted French scholar.

ABELARDO: Spanish name, derived from Latin Abelardus, meaning "noble strength."

ABELARDUS (ab-e-lär'dus): Middle Latin form of the German surname Abelard, meaning "noble strength."

ABELL: Variant spelling of the Anglo-Scottish surname Abel, meaning "vanity or vapor." Thomas Abell, a Roman Catholic clergyman, rector of Bradwell in Essex, and chaplain to Queen Catherine, wife of Henry VIII of England, unjustly condemned and executed at Smithfield on the charge of concealing the treasonable practices of Elizabeth Barton.

ABELLA: Italian surname, probably derived from Latin apicula, meaning "bee." It may have originally been an occupational name for a bee-keeper, or a byname for a very active person.

ABENCERRAGES (a-ben'se-rä-j-ez): The name of a Moorish family in Grenada, famous in Spanish romance, thought to possibly have been derived from the Semitic name Yussuf ben-Serragh, the name of the tribe in the time of Mohammed.

ABENDRÖTH: German surname composed of the elements abend "evening" and roth "red," hence "red evening."

ABENEZRA (ä-ben-ez'rä): Variant of the Jewish patronymic surname Ibn Ezra, meaning "son of Ezra," a personal name meaning "help."

ABERCROMBIE: This surname comes from the name of a parish in Fife, Scotland on the shore of the Frith of Forth, composed of the Gaelic elements aber "confluence of waters," and cruime/crombie "bend, crook." John Abercrombie (1780-1844), a Scottish physician and

philosopher. Also spelled Abercromby.

ABERCROMBY: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Abercrombie, meaning "lives at the bend where the waters meet." Patrick Abercromby (1656-1716), a Scottish antiquary, author, physician, and historian.

ABERDEEN: English surname derived from the city name Aberdeenshire, composed of the Gaelic elements aber "the mouth of a river," "marshy ground," or "place where streams meet," and the name of the river Don, hence "from the mouth of the river Don."

ABERDENE: Variant spelling of the English surname Aberdeen, meaning "from the mouth of the river Don."

ABERNETHY: Scottish surname derived from the name of a town in Strathern, Scotland, composed of the Gaelic elements aber "confluence of waters," and nethy "dangerous," hence "from the dangerous place where the waters meet." Abernethy was anciently a seat of Culdee worship and a Pictish royal residence. John Abernethy (1680-1740), a clergyman of the Irish Presbyterian Church, appointed by the synod to the church in Dublin, 1717. His refusal to obey caused a schism in the Irish Church.

ABERNITHY: Variant spelling of Gaelic Abernethy, meaning "from the dangerous place where the waters meet."

ABERT: German surname of which the first element is uncertain, the second coming from beort "bright, famous." It may from a form of Albrecht, meaning "very distinguished." Joseph Johann Abert (1832-1915), a German musician and composer of operas.

ABILDGAARD (ä-bil'gård): Danish surname derived from the vocabulary word abildgaard, Icelandic epla-garðr, meaning "apple-yard, apple orchard." Nikolai Abraham Abildgaard (1744-1809), a Danish painter of Norwegian parentage, professor and later director at the academy of Copenhagen.

ABNEY: English form of the French surname d'Aubigny, meaning "from Aubigny," a Norman city which got its name from Latin Albinus, meaning "like Albus," i.e. "white." Thomas Abney (1640-1722), a London merchant, sheriff of London and Middlesex 1693-94, one of the original directors of the Bank of England, and Lord Mayor of London, 1700-01.

ABOAB (ä-bō'äb): Spanish-Jewish name, which may have derived from Abuhib, which may be a Castilian pronunciation of Arabic Abdelwahab, meaning "servant of Wahab," a personal name meaning "generous." Isaac Aboab, a Hebrew scholar who flourished at Toledo about 1300, was the author of "Shulchan hapanim" (table of show bread), which is lost, and of "Menorath hamaor" (the light), a collection of legends made from an ethical and religious point of view.

ABRAHAM: This surname comes from the Hebrew personal name Abraham, meaning "father of a multitude."

ABRABANEL (אַבְרָבְנָאֵל, ä-brä-bä-nel): Variant of the Spanish-Jewish surname Abravanel, meaning "little Abraham," a personal name meaning "father of a multitude." Isaac Abrabanel (1437-1508), was a Jewish scholar and statesman. His family claimed descent from the royal house of David.

ABRAVANEL (אַבְרָבְנָאֵל, ä-brä-bä-nel): Spanish-Jewish surname, derived from either a byname or hypocoristic form (child's pronunciation) of the given name Abraham, with the added Spanish diminutive suffix -el, hence "little Abraham," a personal name meaning "father of a multitude." Judah Leon Abravanel (1465-1523), was a Jewish Portuguese physician,

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philosopher and poet. Also spelled Abarbanel and Abrabanel.

ACHESON: Variant form of English Atkinson, meaning "son of Adam." William Arthur gives it a Cornish British origin, and the meaning "inscription or memorial."

ACKART: Old English surname composed of the elements ack "oak" and ard "disposition, nature," hence "oak-like," i.e. firm-hearted, unyielding.

ACKERMAN: Old English surname composed of the elements acker "made of oak; oaken," and man "man," hence "oaken man," i.e. a hard, unyielding man.

ACKERLEY: English surname meaning "oak meadow."

ACKERS: Old English surname of uncertain etymology. The first element is from Old English ack "oak." The termination -er in many nouns has the same signification as Latin vir "man." The name probably means either "place of oaks" or "oak-man."

ACKLAND: Old English surname derived from the name of a place in North Devonshire England, composed of the elements ack "oak" and land "land," hence "oak land."

ACKMAN: Old English name composed of the elements ack "oak" and man "man," hence "oak man."

ACKSHEUGH: Old English surname meaning "hilly land covered with oaks."

ACTON: Old English surname derived from the name of a town in Middlesex England, meaning "oak tree settlement."

ADAIR: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Adaire, of Irish origin, meaning "the ford of the oaks."

ADAIRE: Scottish surname derived from the Irish place name Athdare, composed of the elements ath "a ford" and dare (from darach) "oak," hence "the ford of the oaks." There is a tradition concerning the origin of this name recorded in William Arthur's Etymological Dictionary of Family and Christian Names, 1857; it reads: "Thomas, the sixth Earl of Desmond, while on a hunting excursion was benighted, and lost his way, between Tralee and Newcastle, in the county of Limerick, where he was received and hospitably entertained by one William McCormic, whose daughter he subsequently married. At this alliance, the family and clan took umbrage. Resigning his title and estate to his youngest brother, he fled to France in 1418, and died of grief at Rouen, two years afterward. The King of England attended his funeral. He had issue, Maurice and John; Robert, the son of Maurice, returning to Ireland, with the hope of regaining the estates and title of Thomas, his ancestor, slew Gerald, the White Knight, in single combat at Athdare, the ford of the oaks, whence he received the name of Adaire. He embarked for Scotland, where he married Arabella, daughter of John Campbell, Lord of Argyle."

ADAMS: Scottish surname of Hebrew origin, meaning "son of Adam ("red earth")." This name is of great antiquity in Scotland. "Duncan Adam, son of Alexander Adam, lived in the reign of King Robert Bruce, and had four sons, from whom all the Adams, Adamsons, and Adies in Scotland are descended." -- William Arthur, M.A., An Etymological Dictionary of Family and Christian Names, 1857.

ADAMSON: Scottish surname meaning "son of Adam."

ADCOCK: Scottish surname meaning "little Ad (Adam)."

ADDISON: Old English surname, meaning "son of Adam." Scottish surname meaning "son of Adam." In Lowland-Scotch, Adie or Adee is a corruption of Adam.

ADEE: English surname derived from Hebrew Adam, meaning "the red earth."

ADKINS: English surname composed of Ad (Adam) and kins from German kind "child," hence "child of Adam."

ADLAM: Old English surname composed of the elements adel "noble" and ham "castle, village," hence "noble village."

ADLAR: Dutch surname derived from the word adelaar, meaning "eagle."

ADNET: Originally a medieval French form of Hebrew Adam, meaning "the red earth."

ADNOT: Originally a medieval French form of Hebrew Adam, meaning "the red earth."

ADRIAN: English surname derived from Latin Adrianus, meaning "from Hadria." Also spelled Hadrian.

AFFLECK: English altered form of the Scottish surname Auchinleck, meaning "hill stone," once born by the proprietors of the lands and barony of Auchinleck, in Angusshire, Scotland.

AFTON: Old English surname, derived from the name of the River Afton in Ayrshire, Scotland, made famous in Burns' poem "Sweet Afton."

AGAN: Scottish surname derived from Gaelic eigin, meaning "force, violence," hence "strong-handed."

AGAR: Scottish surname derived from Gaelic aighear, meaning "gladness, joy."

AGLIONBY: English surname derived from the name of a village in Cumbria, England, which is of Norman French origin, composed of the elements aglion "eaglet" and by "habitation, residence," hence "eagle's nest."

AGNEW: English surname of Norman French origin, derived from the name of the town Agneau in Normandy, meaning "lamb."

AHERN: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó hEachthighearna "descendant of Eachthighearna," hence "lord of horses."

AIKEN: Anglo-Saxon surname meaning "made of oak."

AINSLEY: Scottish habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements ansetl "hermitage" and leah "meadow, pasture," hence "hermitage meadow."

AINSWORTH: British and Welsh surname, composed of the elements ains "spring, river" and gwerth "court, place, possession," hence "place or possession on the river."

AIRD: Scottish surname, derived from the name of any of a number of places in Scotland, derived from Gaelic aird, meaning "height, promontory."

AITKIN: Perhaps a variant form of the English surname Atkins, meaning either "son of Adam" or "son of Arthur."

AITON: Variant form of the Old English surname Eaton, meaning "water town."

AKEMAN: Variant spelling of the Old English surname Ackman, meaning "oak man."

AKERS: Variant spelling of the Old English surname Ackers, probably meaning either "place of oaks" or "oak-man."

AKIN: Variant spelling of the Anglo-Saxon surname Aiken, meaning "made of oak."

ALAN: English surname derived from the Old Celtic name Alan, which may have the same origin as Irish Gaelic Ailín, from ailín, a diminutive of ail "rock," hence "little rock." Other possibilities include 1) from Slavonic aland "wolf-dog," 2) from a corruption of Latin Ælianus "sun," or "sun-bright," or 3) from Gaelic aluinn "handsome." Other forms of the name include Allan, Allen, Allin, Alleyne.

ALANSON: Scottish surname meaning "son of Alan."

ALBAMONTE (ál-bā-mon'te): Spanish surname, composed of the Latin elements alba

"white" and monte "mountain," hence "white mountain." Giuseppe Albamonte was a Neapolitan statesman, secretary-general under the Cisalpine Republic, 1798, and member of the executive committee at Naples. Also spelled Abbamonte, Abamonte, Abamonti, and Albamonti.

ALBERT: English surname derived from the Middle English personal name Albert, from Latin Albertus, from Old High German Albrecht, meaning "very distinguished."

ALCOCK: English surname composed of Al (in this case a pet form of Henry) and the diminutive suffix -cock, hence "little Al (Henry)."

ALDAINE: Variant form of the Old English surname Alden, meaning "high castle" or "high town."

ALDEN: Old English surname composed of the elements ald "old" and den "hill," hence "old hill." Or from alt "high" and dun "castle, town," hence "high castle" or "high town." Also spelled Aldaine.

ALDERSEY: Old English surname meaning "isle of alders."

ALDIS: Modern form of the Old English surname Aldous, possibly meaning "from the old house."

ALDJOY: English surname meaning either "old joy" or "all joy."

ALDOUS: From a surname common in the Middle Ages, thought to be of Anglo-Saxon origin, probably a contraction of Old English ald-house, hence "from the old house."

ALDRED: Middle English form of Anglo-Saxon Ealdred, meaning "old counsel." William Arthur gives this surname the meaning "all-dread."

ALDRIDGE: English surname of disputed derivation. It may come from the personal name Aldrich, meaning "noble ruler," or it may be an altered form of the surname Aldred, meaning "old counsel" or "all-dread."

ALEXANDER: English surname derived from the personal name Alexander, meaning "defender of mankind."

ALFIERI: Italian surname, derived from Spanish alférez, meaning "standard bearer." The Spanish word, alférez, was borrowed from Arabic al-fris, meaning "mounted fighter" or "knight," but the original meaning was not retained.

ALFORD: Old English habitational surname, derived from the name of various places most of which were composed of the Old English elements eald "old" and ford "ford," hence "old river-ford."

ALFORT: English surname derived from the name of a village in France near Paris.

ALFRED: English surname derived from the personal name Alfred, meaning "elf counsel."

ALGAR: English surname of Gaelic origin, meaning "noble."

ALLENDORF: English surname derived from the name of a town in Hesse, Germany, meaning "old town."

ALLGOOD: Old English surname meaning "all good."

ALSOP: English surname derived from then name of a town in the county of Derby, England. It probably comes from the occupational name Ale-shop, a name given to the keeper of an ale-shop.

ALTON: Old English surname, derived from the name of many places most of which meant either "old town" or "settlement at the (river) source."

ALVERSTON: Variant spelling of the English surname Alverton, meaning "high green hill."

ALVERTON: English surname composed of the elements al "high," ver "green" and ton "hill," hence "high green hill."

ALVIN: English surname derived from the Norman French personal name Aluin, from Old High German Alwin, meaning "all-winner."

ALVISIO: Italian surname, derived ultimately from Germanic Hlodovic, thus sharing the same etymology as French Louis, meaning "famous warrior."

ALVORD: Variant spelling of the English surname Alford, meaning "old river-ford."

ALWIN: Variant spelling of the English surname Alvin, meaning "all-winner."

AMAKER: English surname derived from the name of a Danish island Amager, located east of Copenhagen.

AMBLER: English form of the French occupational surname Amblour, from Ambleur, the name for an officer of the king's stables.

AMBLOUR: French occupational surname derived from Ambleur, the name for an officer of the king's stables. Ambler is the Anglicised form.

AMBROSE: English surname derived from the personal name Ambrose, meaning "immortal."

AMERY: Variant spelling of the English surname Amory, meaning "home-ruler."

AMES: English surname of uncertain derivation, possibly a contracted form of Ambrose, meaning "immortal," or from Amos, meaning "strong."

AMHERST: Old English surname composed of the elements ham "town, village" and hurst/herst "wood," hence "town in the wood."

AMHLAIOIBH: Irish Gaelic surname, possibly derived from Scandinavian Anlaf (O.N. Ánleifr), meaning "heir of the ancestors."

AMMADON: English surname derived from Gaelic amadan, meaning "numskull, simpleton."

AMORY: English surname, derived from the Norman French personal name Aimeri, meaning "home-ruler."

AMPTE: Dutch surname derived from Ampt, an official situation; the house in which an officer transacts his business; a lordship of the Netherlands.

ANDARTON: English habitational surname composed of the elements an "the," dar "oak" and ton "hill," hence "the oak hill."

ANDERSON: English patronymic surname meaning "son of Andrew."

ANDREW: English surname derived from the personal name Andrew, meaning "man; warrior."

ANGEVINE: French surname derived from the ethnic byname Angevine, denoting a person coming originally "from Anjou" in France.

ANGUS: English surname derived from the name of a county of Scotland, which took its name from Gaelic Aonghus (supposedly from Aongus Fer), meaning "excellent valor."

ANNAKIN: Low German surname derived from Hebrew Channah (English Hannah), meaning "favor; grace."

ANNAN: English surname derived from Annon, the name of a river of Scotland, perhaps from Gaelic an-oun, meaning "slow running water" or "gentle river."

ANNESLEY: English name derived from the name of a town in Nottinghamshire, England, possibly named after Anclo, a city in Norway, by free-booters or conquerors of Briton.

ANSCOM: English surname meaning "stone-enclosed valley."

ANSELL: French surname, derived from the personal name Ansel, meaning "divine helmet."

ANSELM: German surname derived from the personal name Anselm, meaning "divine helmet."
 ANSON: English patronymic surname which may have been based on any of a number of Middle English names, i.e. "son of Ansel" or "son Agnes."
 ANSTRUTHER: English surname of Celtic origin, derived from Gaelic Anstruth, composed of the elements aon "excellent" and sruth "discerning, knowing," and -er from fear "man," hence "excellent discerning man." Anstruth is the name of an ancient Celtic order of bards next in rank to the Allamh, or chief doctor of the seven degrees in all the sciences.
 ANTHON: Contracted form of the English surname Anthony, possibly meaning "invaluable."
 ANTHONY: English surname derived from the personal name Anthony, possibly meaning "invaluable."
 AP LLOYD: Welsh surname meaning "son of Lloyd," a personal name meaning "grey-haired."
 APAFI (o'po-fā): Transylvanian royal patronymic surname, composed of the Hungarian secular personal name Appa "father" and fi "son," hence "son of Appa."
 APONUS: Latin form of Italian Abano, meaning "taking off the pain." Petrus Aponus, physician and philosopher.
 APPLEBY: English surname derived from the name of a town in Westmoreland, England, meaning "apple town."
 APPLEGARTH: English surname meaning "apple orchard" or "apple garden."
 APPLETON: English surname meaning "apple town."
 ARBLASTER: English surname derived from Latin Balistarius, meaning "cross-bowman."
 ARBUTHNOT: English surname derived from the name of city in Mearns, Scotland, originally written Aberbuthnoth, composed of the elements aber "the mouth of a river," "marshy ground," or "place where streams meet," both "dwelling," and neth, a descending stream, or low stream," hence "dwelling near the confluence of the river with the sea."
 ARCHER: English occupational surname, derived from Old French archier, from Latin arcuarius "bow," hence "bowman" or "maker of bows."
 ARCHIBALD: English surname of derived from German Archimbald, via Norman French Archimbaud, meaning "genuine courage." The Scottish Gaelic form is Gilleasbaig, Anglicised as Gillespie, and means "bishop's servant."
 ARDAL: English surname derived from an Anglicised form of Irish Gaelic Árdghal, meaning "high valor."
 ARDEN: English habitation surname, derived from Celtic ard, meaning "high," hence "from the high place."
 ARDGALL: English surname derived from an Anglicised form of Irish Gaelic Árdghal, meaning "high valor."
 ARGYLE: Scottish surname derived from Gaelic Earra Ghaidheal, meaning "country of the western Gael" or "breeding-place of the Gael."
 ARLINGTON: English surname derived from the name of a village in Sussex, England.
 ARLON: English surname derived from the name of a town in the Netherlands, thirteen miles east of Luxemburg.
 ARMISTEAD: Old English surname meaning "place of arms."
 ARMITAGE: English surname derived from the word hermitage, the cell or habitation of a

hermit, formerly a wilderness or solitary place.
 ARMOUR: English surname derived from the occupational name armourer, meaning "maker of armour."
 ARMSTED: Contracted form of the Old English surname Armistead, meaning "place of arms."
 ARMSTRONG: Old English surname meaning "strong arm." The following tradition exists concerning this name: "This family was anciently settled on the Scottish border; their original name was Fairbairn, which was changed to Armstrong on the following occasion: An ancient king of Scotland having had his horse killed under him in battle, was immediately re-mounted by Fairbairn, his armor-bearer, on his own horse. For this timely assistance he amply rewarded him with lands on the borders, and to perpetuate the memory of so important a service, as well as the manner in which it was performed (for Fairbairn took the king by the thigh, and set him on the saddle), his royal master gave him the appellation of Armstrong. The chief seat of Johnnie Armstrong was Gilnockie, in Eskdale, a place of exquisite beauty. Johnnie was executed by order of James V., in 1529, as a "Border Freebooter." Andrew Armstrong sold his patrimony to one of his kinsmen, and emigrated to the north of Ireland in the commencement of the seventeenth century. The Armstrongs were always noted for their courage and daring. In the "Lay of the Last Minstrel," when the chief was about to assemble his clans, he says to his heralds: Ye need not go to Liddisdale, / For when they see the blazing bale / Elliots and Armstrongs never fail."
 ARNOLD: English surname derived from French Arnaud, meaning "eagle power."
 ARTHUR: English surname of uncertain etymology, perhaps composed of Welsh art/arth "bear" and Brittonic gur "man," hence "bear-man." In early Welsh works the word art was used as a figurative synonym for "warrior." William Arthur has the following to say about this name: "ARTHUR (British) A strong man; from Ar (Lat. vir), a man, and thor, strong. In the Gaelic, Air is the same as Fear, a man; and the ancient Scythians called a man Aior. Thor was the Jupiter of the Teutonic races, their god of thunder. In Welsh, Arth is a bear, an emblem of strength and courage, and ur a noun termination, a man. Arthur, a bear-man, a hero, a man of strength; the name of a British prince."
 ARTOIR: English surname derived from the name of a province in the Netherlands.
 ARUNDEL: English surname derived from Arundale, the name of a town in Sussex, England, meaning "the dale on the Arun."
 ASCALL: Variant spelling of the English surname Hascall, possibly meaning "a covert, a sheltered place."
 ASGALL: Variant spelling of the English surname Ascall, possibly meaning "a covert, a sheltered place."
 ASHBURTON: English surname derived from the name of a town in Devonshire, England, meaning "town on the hill covered with ash trees."
 ASHBY: Old English surname meaning "place by the ash."
 ASHFORD: Old English surname derived from the name of a town in Kent, England, meaning "on the river Ash (or Esh)."
 ASHLEY: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements æsc "ash" and lēah "wood," hence "ash-tree grove."
 ASHTON: English habitation surname, derived from the name of various places composed

of the Old English elements *æsc* "ash tree" and *tun* "settlement," hence "ash tree settlement."

ASKEW: Contracted form of the Old English surname *Acksheugh*, meaning "hilly land covered with oaks."

ASPINWALL: Old English surname meaning "aspen vale."

ASTLEY: Contracted form of the Old English surname *Eastley*, meaning "the east meadow."

ASTON: English habitation surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements *east* "east" and *tun* "settlement," hence "east settlement."

ASTOR: English surname, perhaps derived from the personal name *Astor*, or cognate with it, meaning "hawk." It was originally a derogatory term for men with hawk-like, predatory characteristics.

ATHERTON: Old English surname derived from a contracted form of *Atherstone*, the name of a town in Warwickshire, England, named after the family of *Athelstan*, meaning "noble stone."

ATHILL: Anglicised form of the Norman French surname *De la Hou* ("of the hill"), meaning "at (the) hill."

ATHOL: Scottish surname derived from the name of a district of Perthshire, Scotland, composed of the Gaelic elements *ath* "ford" and *al* "rock, stone," hence "ford of the rock; rock-ford."

ATHOW: Scottish surname composed of the Gaelic elements *ath* "ford" and *how/hoo* "high place," hence "high ford."

ATKINS: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Adam," though some take the prefix *At-* to be a short form of *Arthur*, hence "son of Arthur."

ATKINSON: English and Scottish patronymic surname, meaning "son of Atkins."

ATTREE: English surname meaning "at (the) tree."

ATWATER: English surname meaning "at (the) water."

ATWELL: English surname meaning "at (the) well."

ATWOOD: English surname meaning "at (the) wood."

AUBREY: English surname derived from the personal name *Aubrey*, derived from German *Alberich* via Norman French *Alberi*, meaning "elf ruler."

AUCHINLECK: Scottish surname derived from a place of the same name, composed of the Gaelic elements *ach* "elevation, hill, mound" and *leac* "flat stone," hence "hill stone." Auchinleck may have originally been one of those places where Celts and Druids held festivals and performed acts of worship.

AUCHMUTY: Irish surname composed of the Gaelic elements *ach* "an elevation, a mound," and *mod* "an assembly, court, meeting," hence "mount of law."

AUDLEY: English habitation surname, derived from the name of a place in Staffordshire, composed of Old English *Ealdgyth* and *leah* "meadow, woodland clearing," hence "Ealdgyth's meadow."

AUSTIN: English surname, derived from Old French *Aousten*, from Roman Latin *Augustinus*, in short *Agustin*, meaning "venerable."

AVERILL: Contracted form of the English surname *Haverhill*, meaning "the hill sown with oats."

AVERY: English surname derived from the Middle English personal name *Alfred*, meaning "elf counsel."

AVIS: English surname, perhaps derived from the French, meaning "a schemer, busy-body," or from Latin *avus*, meaning "ancestor, grandfather."

AYLSWORTH: English surname composed of Cornish British ayles "low meadow washed by a river or sea" and *gwerth* "a farm, house or village."

AYLEWARD: English occupational surname meaning "ale-keeper."

AYRES: English surname derived from the name of a river, town, and district in Scotland, of uncertain etymology, possibly from Gaelic *air*, meaning "slaughter; place of battle," or Celtic *aer* "to open, expand, flow clearly." There is an account of this name in Thorpe's catalogue of the deeds of Battle Abbey: "Ayres, formerly Eyre. The first of this family was named Truelove, one of the followers of William the Conqueror. At the battle of Hastings, Duke William was flung from his horse, and his helmet beaten into his face, which Truelove observing, pulled off, and horsed him again. The duke told him 'Thou shalt hereafter from Truelove be called Eyre (or Air), because thou hast given me the air I breathe.' After the battle, the Duke, on inquiry respecting him, found him severely wounded (his leg and thigh having been struck off); he ordered him the utmost care, and on his recovery, gave him lands in Derby, in reward for his services, and the leg and thigh in armor, cut off, for his crest; an honorary badge yet worn by all the Eyres in England."

BAANING: Danish surname derived from the word *baaning*, meaning "a dwelling, a home."

BABA: A surname of uncertain origin, but the word is nearly the same in all languages, signifying a young child of either sex. German *bube*, "a boy"; Greek *baba*, an inarticulate sound, as of an infant crying out, hence a child.

BABER: English surname composed of the Gaelic elements *bas* "death" and fear "man," hence "death-man," i.e. "a fencer" or "a swordsman"; one who, by his blows, produced death.

BABCOCK: English surname composed of the elements *Bab*, a pet form of *Bartholomew*, and the diminutive suffix *-cock*, hence "little Bab."

BACHELOR: English surname of Dutch origin, composed of the elements *bock* "book" and *leeraar* "doctor of divinity, law, or physic."

BACKMAN: English surname of German origin, composed of the elements *bach* "brook" and man "man," hence "brook-man."

BACKUS: English surname of German origin, composed of the elements *back* "bake" and *haus* "house," hence "bake-house."

BACON: Old English surname derived from the word *baccen*, meaning "beech-tree."

BADEAU: French surname derived from a byname for Parisians who admire anything extravagant.

BADGER: English surname having three possible meanings, 1) "badger" the animal, 2) "a dealer in grain, and 3) "hawker, peddler."

BADGELY: English surname derived from *Bagasly*, the name of a town in Scotland.

BAGLEY: Old English surname composed of the elements *bœlge* "rising, swelling" and *leagh/ley* "plain or pasture land," hence "the rising or swelling ground that lies untilled."

BAGOT: French surname meaning "walking staff."

BAILEY: English occupational surname, meaning "bailiff."

BAILLIE: French form of the English surname *Bailey*, meaning "bailiff."

BAIN: Irish Gaelic surname meaning "white."

BAINE: Variant spelling of the Irish surname *Bain*, meaning "white."

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BAISLEY: Irish surname derived from Gaelic baisealach, meaning "proud."
BAITS: English occupational surname derived from the word baits, signifying to eat and rest for refreshment, hence "one who keeps a house of entertainment."
BAKER: Old English occupational surname derived from the word bacan ("to dry by heat"), hence "baker."
BALL: English surname derived from the word bal, meaning "hilltop."
BALCOMBE: Gaelic surname composed of the elements bal "round body" and combe "valley," hence "the round valley."
BALDWIN: English surname derived from Old High German Baldawin, via French Baldoin, meaning "brave friend."
BALEN: English surname, perhaps of Cornish British origin, from belen, meaning "mill."
BALFOUR: Scottish surname, composed of the Gaelic elements bail "farm, house, village," and più ȳir "grass, pasture," hence "farm pasture; grazing land."
BALISTARIUS: Roman surname meaning "cross-bowman."
BALLANTINE: Variant spelling of the English surname Ballantyne, meaning "the fire of Baal."
BALLANTYNE: English surname derived from the name of a place of ancient Celtic worship, composed of the elements Baalen "of Baal" and teine "fire," hence "the fire of Baal." Also spelled Ballantine.
BALLARD: From an Old English derogatory name for a bald-headed person, derived from Middle English balled, meaning "rounded like a ball," hence "bald-headed."
BANCHO: Gaelic surname composed of the elements ban "white" and chu/cu "dog," hence "white dog."
BANCROFT: English surname composed of the elements ban "high ground, hill" and croft "field," hence "high field."
BANGS: English surname of uncertain derivation, either from French bain, meaning "a bath" or "a hot-house," or a corruption of the English surname Banks, meaning "from the hillside" or "from the riverbank."
BANKER: Variant form of the English surname Banks, meaning "from the hillside" or "from the riverbank."
BANKS: English surname derived from the word bank "ridge" or "hillside," hence "from the hillside" or "from the riverbank."
BANNATYNE: Scottish surname derived from the name of a place "where fires are kindled."
BANNERMAN: Scottish surname meaning "standard-bearer."
BANNING: Anglicised form of the Danish surname Baaning, meaning "a dwelling, a home."
BANNISTER: English occupational surname of French origin, from bain ("bath" or "hot-house"), meaning "keeper of a bath."
BANT: Welsh surname meaning "from the high place."
BANTA: Gaelic surname derived from beaunta, meaning "hills, mountains."
BANVARD: English surname composed of the elements ban "hill, high ground, mount" and vard "rampart," hence "fortified hill."
BARBER: English occupational surname meaning "barber," one who shaves and dresses hair.
BARCLAY: Scottish form of the Old English surname Berkeley, meaning "birch tree meadow."
BARCULO: Dutch surname derived from Borkulo, the name of a town in Holland.

BARD: Celtic surname composed of the elements bawr "highest, topmost" and eidde "instructor," hence "chief instructor."
BARDEL: Welsh surname meaning "fortification."
BARHYDT: Dutch surname derived from barheid, meaning "severity, sharpness."
BARKER: English occupational surname meaning "a tanner."
BARNARD: Variant spelling of the English surname Bernard, meaning "bold as a bear."
BARNES: English surname derived from the Cornish British word barnyz, meaning "a judge."
BARNET: English surname derived from the name of a town in Hertfordshire, England, meaning "the land that was burned." Also spelled Barnett.
BARNETT: Variant spelling of the English surname Barnet, meaning "the land that was burned."
BARNEY: English surname derived from a pet form of Bernard, meaning "bold as a bear."
BARNHAM: Old English surname derived from the name of the town of Bearnham, meaning "the baron's home." Barnum is a contracted form.
BARNWELL: Old English surname composed of the elements bearne "wood" and veld "field," hence "from the field by the wood."
BARNUM: Contracted form of the Old English surname Barnham, meaning "the baron's home."
BARR: Scottish surname derived from the name of a place in Ayrshire, Scotland, meaning "elevation, height" or "hill."
BARRET: From an English byname for a quarrelsome person, derived from Middle English barat, a derivative of barater, meaning "to haggle," hence "haggler."
BARRON: English surname derived from the title of nobility, probably derived from Old English beorn, meaning "bear" or "young warrior."
BARTO: Hungarian surname derived from Greek Bartholomaios, meaning "son of Talmi."
BARTON: English surname derived from the name of a town in England composed of the Old English elements bere "barley" and tun "town, settlement," hence "barley town."
BARTOS: Hungarian surname derived from Greek Bartholomaios, meaning "son of Talmi."
BATES: Old English surname derived from the word bate, meaning "contention."
BAXTER: Old English occupational surname, derived from the word biȝ ȳcestre, meaning "baker."
BEAUMONT: Old French surname, derived from a place name composed of the elements beau "beautiful" and mont "hill, mountain," hence "beautiful mountain."
BEAUREGARD: Old French surname, derived from a place name composed of the elements beau "beautiful" and regard "aspect, outlook," hence "beautiful aspect" or "beautiful outlook."
BECK: English surname having several origins: a topographical surname, derived from Anglo-Saxon beke and German word bach, which means "little stream," hence "lives by the little stream." It also can be an occupational surname, derived from Old English becca "matlock," meaning "maker or seller of matlock."
BECKER: Occupational surname, derived from Middle English bakere, meaning "baker." It also can be a topographical surname, derived from Middle High German bach, meaning "little stream."
BECKERS: Patronymic form of the English surname Becker, meaning "son of Becker" or "son of the baker."

BECKET: Either a diminutive form of the surname Beck, meaning "little Beck," or from the name of a place in Berkshire, composed of the Old English elements beo "bee" and cot "cottage," hence "bee cottage." Gilbert Abbott Becket, journalist and dramatist.

BENEOIT: Old French surname derived from Latin Benedictus, meaning "blessed."

BENSON: English surname meaning "son of Ben."

BENTLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements beonet, "bent grass" and lēah "clearing, meadow" hence "bent grass meadow."

BENTON: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Northumbria composed of the Old English elements beonet "bent grass" and tūn "enclosure; settlement," hence "bent grass settlement."

BERKELEY: Old English habitational surname, composed of the elements be(o)rc "birch" and leah "clearing, meadow, pasture," hence "birch tree meadow."

BERNARD: English surname derived from the personal name Bernard, meaning "bold as a bear."

BEVAN: Anglicised form of Welsh ap Iefan, meaning "son of Evan."

BEVERLY: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Humberside composed of the Old English elements beofor "beaver" and lēac "stream," hence "beaver stream." Also spelled Beverley.

BEVIS: English surname, probably derived from the Old French place name Beauvais, in Oise, France which got its name from the Belgic tribe of the Bellovaci (Belovasci) that some say is the name of the Fir Bolg (the ancient Irish "shining ones") of Celtic mythology.

BLAIN: English surname derived from the personal name, an Anglicised form of Scottish Gaelic Bláán, meaning "little yellow one."

BLAIR: Scottish surname derived from the name of various places in Scotland called Blair, which took their name from Gaelic blàr, meaning "field, plain," most often referring to a "battlefield."

BLAKE: English surname derived from an Old English byname for a person having unusually dark or light hair or skin. It comes from two Old English words: 1) blīȝ ½c "black," and, 2) blāc "white." It can therefore mean either "black" or "white."

BLOOD: Possibly a contraction of the Welsh surname ap Lloyd, meaning "son of Lloyd," a personal name meaning "grey-haired." It also may be an English surname of Anglo-Saxon origin, which may have originated as a byname for "a surgeon," from Old English blod, meaning "blood."

BLYTHER: Old English surname, derived from the word blīðe, meaning "cheerful, happy."

BOND: English occupational surname, meaning "peasant farmer; smallholder."

BOOKER: English occupational surname, originally denoting both a "book-binder" and a "scribe."

BOONE: English surname, derived from Old French bon, meaning "good."

BOOTH: English surname, derived from Middle English bothe, meaning "lives in a bothy (hut)."

BOYD: Scottish surname meaning "yellow," as in yellow-haired.

BRADBURN: English surname, composed of the Old English elements brad "broad" and burna "stream," hence "broad stream."

BRADEN: Anglicised form of Irish Gaelic Ó Bradain, meaning "descendant of Bradán," hence "salmon."

BRADFORD: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements brād "broad" and ford "ford, river crossing" hence "broad river crossing."

BRADLEY: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements brād "broad" and leah "meadow, woodland clearing," broad meadow."

BRADY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Brádaigh, meaning "descendant of Brádach," hence "large-chested."

BRANDON: English surname, derived from the name of various places most of which were composed of the Old English elements brom "broom" and dun "hill," hence "broom-covered hill."

BRANDT: Germanic surname, derived from Anglo-Saxon Brand, meaning "blade, sword."

BRANT: Variant spelling of the Germanic surname Brandt, meaning "blade, sword."

BRANTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of the Old English elements brom "broom, gorse," and tun "town, settlement," hence "broom town."

BRAOSE: English-Norman dynastic surname, probably meaning "woods; thicket."

BRAXTON: English surname, derived from an unidentified place name, probably composed of the Old English personal name Bracc and the word tun "town, settlement," hence "Bracc's town."

BRENNAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Braonáin, "descendant of Braonán," hence "little drop."

BRENT: English surname having several possible origins: From a topographic name for someone who "lives by the ground cleared by fire," from Middle English brend, from brennan "to burn." Or: From an Old English byname for a criminal who had been "branded." For example, the surname Brendcheke "burned cheek" came from such a byname. Or: From a habitational name derived either from Old English brant "steep" or an old British Celtic word meaning "high place."

BRENTON: English surname, derived from the Old English place name Bryningtun, composed of the personal name Bryni and the word tun "town, settlement," hence "town of Bryni."

BRETT: English surname, derived from an ethnic name meaning, "a Breton."

BREWSTER: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English breowestre, meaning "brewer."

BRIGHAM: English surname, derived from the place name in Cumbria and Yorkshire, composed of the Old English elements brycg "bridge" and ham "homestead," hence "homestead by the bridge."

BRIGHTON: English surname derived from Brighton, the name of a place on the River Derwent, composed of the Old English elements brycg "bridge" and tun "town, settlement," hence "settlement by the bridge."

BRISCOE: English surname, derived from the name of various places, most of which were composed of the Old Norse elements birki "birch" and skiȝ ½gr "wood," hence "birch wood."

BRITTON: English surname meaning "from Britain."

BRIUIS: Medieval Gaelic form of the English Norman surname Braose, probably meaning

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"woods; thicket."

BROCK: English surname, derived from Old English brocc meaning "badger."

BRODERICK: English surname, derived from the Welsh personal name Rhydderch, meaning "reddish-brown."

BRODY: Irish surname meaning "ditch."

BROGAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Brógáin, meaning "descendant of Brógán," hence "little shoe."

BROOK: Variant spelling of the English surname Brooke, meaning "brook, stream."

BROOKE: English surname, derived from Old English broc, meaning "brook, stream." Also spelled Brook.

BROOKS: English surname meaning "of the brook."

BRUCE: Norman Scottish form of the Norman French surname Bruys, probably meaning "woods; thicket."

BRUIS: Scottish form of the Gaelic surname Briuis, probably meaning "woods; thicket."

BRUNSWICK: English surname derived from German Braunschweig, meaning "Bruno's settlement."

BRUS: Variant spelling of the Norman French surname Bruys, probably meaning "woods; thicket."

BRUYS: Norman French form of the English-Norman surname Braose, probably meaning "woods; thicket."

BRYAN: English surname, derived from Irish Brian, meaning "high hill."

BRYANT: English surname, derived from Irish Brian, meaning "high hill."

BRYCE: Scottish surname, derived from Welsh Brychan, meaning "pied, spotted, speckled."

BRYSON: English surname, meaning "son of Bryce."

BURGESS: English surname, derived from Old French burgeis, meaning "freeman of a borough."

BURNETT: English surname, derived from a byname denoting someone "dark-haired" or "dark-complexioned."

BURNEY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Mac Biorna "son of Biorna," hence "bear."

BURTON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements burh "fortress, protection" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "fortified settlement."

BUSH: English surname meaning "bush."

BUTCHER: English occupational surname, meaning "butcher."

BUXTON: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Derbyshire famous for its thermal springs and once known as Buchestan, meaning "bowing stones."

BYRNE: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Broin "descendant of Bran," hence "raven."

BYRON: English surname, derived from the Old English phrase æt ðæm byrum ("at the byres or cattle-sheds"). The name was usually given to someone whose job it was to look after cattle.

BYSSHE: Variant form of English Bush, meaning "bush."

CADE: English surname, derived from a byname denoting something (or someone) "round and lumpy."

CADEN: Irish surname, derived from patronymic McCadden, an Anglicised form of Gaelic Mac Cadáin "son of Cadán," hence "little battler."

CALANDRA: Italian surname meaning "skylark." This name may have originally been a byname for someone with a good singing voice.

CALDER: English surname, probably derived from the place name Calder in Cumbria, composed of the Welsh elements caled "hard; violent," and dwfr "stream, water," hence "violent water."

CALLAHAN: Irish surname, derived from the personal name Ceallachán, possibly meaning "little bright-headed one."

CALVERT: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English calfhirde, meaning "calf-herder."

CALVIN: Norman form of the French surname Chauvin, meaning "little bald one."

CAMDEN: English surname, composed of the Old English elements camp "enclosure" and denu "valley," hence "enclosed valley."

CAMERON: Scottish surname, derived from an Anglicised form of the Gaelic descriptive term cam sròn, meaning "crooked nose."

CAMPBELL: Scottish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Cambeul, meaning "crooked mouth."

CAMBEUL: Gaelic surname derived from cam beul, meaning "crooked mouth."

CAMPION: Norman French surname, derived from the word champion, which was originally a status name for a professional "champion."

CARLISLE: English surname, derived from the name of a city in northwest England which the Romans settled and called Lugovalio "place of Lugovalos." Lugovalio was later shortened to Leol and prefixed with the British word caer "fortress," rendering the name Carleol, "fortress of Lugovalos," from which Carlisle was derived. In Arthurian legend, this was the name of the place where Guinevere's affair with Sir Lancelot was exposed, and where she was sentenced to death.

CARLTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of the Old English elements carl/charl "(free) peasant" and tun "settlement, town," hence "settlement of the free peasants." It is a dialectal variant of Charlton.

CARLYLE: Variant spelling of the English surname Carlisle, meaning "fortress of Lugovalos."

CARSON: Scottish surname, of uncertain etymology, possibly meaning "son of the marsh dweller."

CARTER: English occupational surname meaning "carter," someone who uses a cart.

CARVER: English occupational surname meaning "carver" of wood or stone.

CARY: Irish surname, derived from an Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Ciardha, "descendant of Ciardha ("black, dark"), hence "dark one."

CASSIDY: Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ìḃ 1/2 Caiside ("descendant of Caiside"), hence "curly(-headed)."

CAXTON: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Cambridgeshire, composed of the Old Norse byname Kakkr and Old English tun "settlement, town," hence "Kakkr's town."

CAYCE: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ìḃ 1/2 Cathasaigh "descendant of Cathasach," hence "vigilant, wakeful."

CECIL: English surname, derived from an Anglicised form of the Welsh personal name Seissyllt, meaning "sixth."

CERNUUS: Latin surname meaning "the crooked." Abbon Cernuus (also known as Abbo

Parisiensis) was a monk of Saint-Germain-des-Prés, and author of a Latin poem about the siege of Paris by the Normans.

CHADWICK: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of Old English Chad (A.S. Ceadda) "battle," and the word wic "place, settlement," hence "Ceadda's place" or perhaps "battle-settlement." William Arthur derives it from Cyte and wick, signifying a "cottage by a harbor" or "sheltered cottage." It has also often been rendered "Ceadda's dairy farm."

CHANCE: French baronial surname, derived from a byname for an obsessive gambler, risk-taker, or daredevil, meaning "chance, fortune."

CHANCE: English form of the French baronial surname Chancé, transferred to forename use, meaning "chance, fortune."

CHANCEY: Norman French surname, derived from the baronial surname Chancé, meaning "chance, fortune."

CHANDLER: Old French occupational surname, derived from Old French chandele ("candle"), meaning "candle maker" or "candle merchant."

CHANEL: French surname, meaning "pipe." This was the name of a Parisian fashion house founded by Coco Chanel.

CHANTAL: French surname, meaning "stony place."

CHAPMAN: English surname, derived from Old English cēapmann, composed of the elements cēapan "to buy, sell, trade" and mann "man," hence "merchant, peddler."

CHARLTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of the Old English elements carl/charl "(free) peasant" and tun "settlement, town," hence "settlement of the free peasants." It is a dialectal variant of Carlton.

CHASE: English surname (of Norman French origin), derived from a byname for a hunter, hence "hunter."

CHAUNCEY: English form of the Norman French surname Chancey, meaning "chance, fortune."

CHAUVIN: French surname, composed of the word chauve and a diminutive suffix, hence "little bald one."

CHERIES: Norman French surname, derived from the word cherise, meaning "cherry."

CHERREY: Anglicised form of the Norman French surname Cheries, meaning "cherry."

CHERRIE: Variant spelling of the English surname Cherrey, meaning "cherry."

CHERRY: Anglicised form of the Norman French surname Cheries, meaning "cherry."

CHERY: Variant spelling of the English surname Cherrey, meaning "cherry."

CHESTER: English surname, derived from the city name Chester, from an Old English form of Latin castra, meaning "legionary camp."

CHRYSTÁLLA: Rare Cypriot (Cyrus) personal name and surname, possibly composed of the Greek elements Christos "Christ" and alla "else, nay, rather," perhaps meant to denote a "non-Christian."

CLANCY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Mac Fhlannchaidh, "son of Flannchadh," hence "red warrior."

CLARK: English occupational surname, derived from Latin clericus, meaning "clerk; secretary."

CLAIBORNE: Variant spelling of the Old English surname Clayborne, meaning "the brook

near a clay-bed."

CLAY: English surname, derived from a byname for someone who "lives on a patch of clay ground," from Old English cliȝ 1/2g ("clay").

CLAYBORNE: Old English surname, meaning "the brook near a clay-bed."

CLAYTON: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements cliȝ 1/2g "clay" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "clay settlement."

CLEMENTS: English surname, derived from Latin Clemens or Clement, meaning "gentle and merciful."

CLEVELAND: English surname, composed of the Old English elements clif "cliff, bank, slope," and land "land," hence "sloped land."

CLIFFORD: English surname, composed of the Old English elements clif "cliff, bank, slope" and ford "ford," hence "cliff river crossing."

CLIFTON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements clif "cliff, bank, slope" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "cliff settlement."

CLINTON: English surname meaning "settlement near the headland."

CLIVE: English surname, derived from the name of various places, derived from Old English clif, meaning "bank, cliff, slope."

CODY: Contracted form of the English surname Cuddy, meaning "helper."

COLBERT: English surname, derived from a French form of German Kolbert, an occupational name for a "maker of wooden clubs" and later an "armor-maker."

COLBY: English surname, composed of the Old Norse elements kolr "black, coal" and býr "settlement," hence "coal settlement."

COLE: English surname, derived from Old English Cola, meaning "black, coal."

COLEMAN: English occupational surname transferred to forename use, meaning "coal-man."

COLL: French surname transferred to forename use, derived from the personal name Col, meaning "victor of the people."

COLTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of the Old English personal name Cola and the word tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "Cola's settlement."

CONRAD: German, English and American surname of Proto Germanic origin that means "bold" and "counsel," hence "bold counsellor";

CONWAY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Conbhuide "descendant of Cú Bhuidhe," hence "yellow hound."

COOPER: English occupational surname, derived from Dutch kuper, from kup "tub; container," which in English became coop. A cooper was a maker and/or fixer of vessels such as buckets and barrels.

CORDELL: English occupational surname, derived from a diminutive form of Old French corde, "rope," hence "little roper." The occupation consisted of making strings, cords, ropes, etc.

CORLISS: English surname, originally a byname meaning "carefree," from Old English carleas, composed of the elements caru "care; grief" and leas "without."

CORNELL: English surname, derived from a Medieval form of Roman Latin Cornelius, probably meaning "horns of the sun," i.e. "sun-beams."

COTY: English surname, derived from a diminutive form of the French word côte, meaning

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"little riverbank."

COURTENAY: French baronial name derived from the nickname court nez, meaning "short nose."

COURTNEY: English surname derived from the French baronial name Courtenay, meaning "short nose."

CRAIG: Scottish surname, derived from the name of various places named from Gaelic creag, meaning "rock."

CRAWFORD: English surname derived from a byname for someone with splayed feet, composed of the Old English elements crowe "crow" and fot "foot," hence "crow-foot."

CREIGHTON (pron. krai-ton): Scottish surname transferred to forename use, either a variant of the surname Crichton ("settlement on the border"), or from Gaelic creachtan, "place of plunder or ruin."

CRICHTON: Scottish surname transferred to forename use, derived from the place name Crichton in Midlothian, composed of Gaelic crioich "border" and Old English tun "place, settlement," hence "settlement on the border."

CROFTON: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements croft "paddock, vegetable garden," and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "garden settlement."

CUDDIHY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Cuidightheach "descendant of Cuidightheach," hence "helper."

CUDDY: Contracted form of the English surname Cuddihy, meaning hence "helper."

CULLEN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Coileáin, "descendant of Coileán," hence "whelp, young pup."

CURTIS: English surname, derived from a byname for a "courteous" person, from Old French curteis. The name later became associated with Middle English curt "short" and hose "leggings," taking on the meaning "short leggings."

D'ABBADIE: French surname, meaning "of the Abbey." Variant: Abbadie. Antoine Thomson d'Abbadie was a French traveler, accompanied by his brother Arnaud Michel, in Abyssinia and the Galla country.

DACEY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Déiseach which was originally a name for a member of the Déise, "a tenant, a vassal," a word tracing back to Indo-European *dem-s ("house").

DAHL: Swedish surname, meaning "valley." Dutch, Danish, Norwegian: dal, German: Thal

D'AIRELLE: Norman French baronial name, meaning "from Airelle."

D'ARAINES: Norman French baronial name, meaning "from Araines."

DALE: English surname meaning "dale, valley."

DALEY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Dálaigh, "descendant of Dálach," hence "assembly, gathering."

DALLAS: English surname, derived from the Anglicised form of Scottish Gaelic Dalfhas, the name of a village in Morayshire, composed of the elements dail "meadow" and fhas "stance," hence "meadow stance," i.e. a meadow used by cattle droves as an overnight dwelling.

DALTON: English surname, derived from various place names composed of the Old English elements dæl "valley" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "valley settlement."

DANA: English surname, possibly meaning "from Denmark."

DARBY: English surname, possibly derived from a corruption of Derby, a shire of England, so called from doire, meaning "a forest abounding in deer."

DARCY: English and Irish surname, derived from the Norman French baronial name d'Arcy, meaning "from Arcy."

DARDEN: English surname, probably of Norman French origin, meaning "from Ardern."

DAREN: English surname, derived from the Norman French baronial name d'Araines, meaning "from Araines."

DARIN: Variant spelling of the English surname Daren, meaning "from Araines."

DARNELL: English surname, composed of the Old English elements derne "hidden, secret" and halh "nook," hence "hidden in a nook" or "secret nook."

DARRELL: English surname, derived from the Norman French baronial name d'Airelle, meaning "from Airelle."

DARREN: Variant spelling of the English surname Daren, meaning "from Araines."

D'ARTAGNAN (pronounced dar-tan-yun): French habitation surname, meaning "from Artagnan." This was the name of the hero of Alexandre Dumas' novel The Three Musketeers. The French form of the name is d'Artagnan; the English form is D'Artagnan (capital "D").

DARWIN: English surname, probably derived from a Middle English Derwin, from Anglo-Saxon Deorwine, meaning "dear friend."

D'AUBIGNY: French surname, meaning "from Aubigny," a Norman city which got its name from Latin Albinus, meaning "like Albus," i.e. "white."

DAVIDSON: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of David."

DAVIDS: Contracted form of the English patronymic surname Davidson, meaning "son of David."

DAVIES: Variant form of the English patronymic surname Davis, meaning "son of Davy."

DAVIN: Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Duibhín "descendant of Duibhín," hence "little black one."

DAVIS: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Davy."

DAWSON: English surname meaning "son of Daw (David)."

DAYAN: Hebrew surname, derived from the word dayan, meaning "judge," especially a rabbinic judge.

DAYE: English surname, possibly originally a nickname for Anglo-Saxon names containing the element daeg, meaning "day," such as Dægberht and Dægmond.

DAYTON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements dic "ditch, dike" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "dike settlement."

DEACON: English occupational surname, derived from the Greek word diakonos, meaning "servant."

DEAN: English occupational surname, derived from the Latin word decanus, meaning "ecclesiastical supervisor." Also: English habitation surname, derived from Middle English dene ("valley"), hence "lives in a valley."

DECHIEL (De Chiel): French surname, composed of the elements de "of" and chiel "heaven," hence "from heaven."

DEEMER: English surname, derived from Old English demere, meaning "judge."

DEEMING: English surname meaning "act of judging."

DEFORREST: English surname of Norman French origin, meaning "from the forest."

DEFORREST: Variant spelling of the English surname Deforest, meaning "from the forest."

DE LA HOU: Norman French surname meaning "of the hill." Athill is an Anglicised form.

DELANEY: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Dubhshláine, meaning "descendant of Dubhshláine," a personal name meaning "black challenger."

DELL: English surname, derived from a byname for someone who "lives in a dell/hollow."

DELL'ABATE: Variant form of the Italian surname Abbattini, meaning "chief, master, or priest."

DEMING: Alternate spelling of the English surname Deeming, meaning "act of judging."

DENTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of the Old English elements denu "valley" and tun "place, settlement, town," hence "valley settlement."

DENVER: English surname, composed of the Old English elements Dene "Dane" and fær "passage, crossing," hence "Dane crossing."

DENZELL: Cornish surname, derived from the name of a place in Cornwall, possibly composed of the elements din "fort" and sul "sun," hence "sunny fort."

DERRICK: British English surname, derived from the personal name Derek, meaning "first of the people; king of nations."

DEVEREUX: Anglicised form of the Norman French baronial surname d'Évreux, meaning "from Évreux."

D'ÉVREUX (d'Évreux): Norman French baronial surname, meaning "from Évreux." Évreux is a commune of Normandy which got its name from the Ebuovices, the name of a gallic tribe, meaning "those which overcome by the yew." Yew wood was used to make weapons: bows, arrows, spears, etc.

DEVIN: English surname transferred to forename use, derived from an Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Daimhín, "descendant of Daimhín," hence "little fawn."

DEVINE: English surname of French origin, meaning "a cunning man, a soothsayer." Also: Variant spelling of the English surname Devin, meaning "little fawn."

DEXTER: English surname, originally denoting a female "dye," but by the time it became a personal name it had already become strongly associated with Latin dexter "auspicious, right-handed," and was usually chosen as a forename because of this.

DEVON: English surname, derived from the name of an English county, which got its name from a British tribal name, meaning "worshiper of the god Dumnonos."

DIGBY: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Lincolnshire, composed of the Old Norse elements diki "ditch" and byr "settlement," hence "ditch-settlement."

DILLON: English surname transferred to forename use, derived from the Norman French surname d'Leon, meaning "from Lyons."

D'LEON (d'Leon): Norman French surname meaning "from Lyons."

DONAGHY: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname MacDonnchadh, meaning "son of Donnchadh."

DONNACHAIDH: Irish Gaelic name meaning "clan of Donnchadh (Duncan)."

DONNELL: Irish and Scottish surname, derived from the personal name Donald, meaning "world ruler."

DONOVAN: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Donndubháin, meaning "descendant of Donndubhán," a personal name meaning "little dark brown one."

DORAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Deoradháin, "descendant of Deoradhán," hence "exile, wanderer."

DOUGLAS: Scottish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Dùbghlas, meaning "black stream."

DOYLE: Irish surname, derived from an Anglicised form of Gaelic Dubhghall, a byname meaning "black stranger."

DRAKE: English surname having several possible origins: 1) from the Roman byname Draca, meaning "snake" or "dragon." 2) from Middle English drake, meaning "male duck." 3) from Old Norse Draki, meaning "snake" or "monster."

DRISCOLL: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó h-Eidirsceóil "son of the messenger," from eidirsceól, composed of the elements eidir "between" and scéal "story, news," hence "go-between, intermediary, messenger, news bearer."

DRUMMOND: Scottish habitational surname, derived from Gaelic druim, meaning "ridge."

DÚBHGHLAS: Gaelic surname and personal name composed of the elements dùbh "black, dark" and glas "stream," hence "black stream."

DUDLEY: English habitational surname, derived from the name of a place in the West Midlands, meaning "Dudda's meadow."

DUFF: Scottish Anglicised form of the Gaelic byname Dubh, meaning "black, dark." In use as both a personal name and a surname.

DUFFY: Anglicised form of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Dhuibhshíthe, meaning "son of Duibhshíth," a personal name meaning "black peace."

DUNN: English surname, derived from a byname for someone with dark hair or a swarthy complexion, from the Middle English element dunn, meaning "dark-colored."

DUSTIN: English surname, probably ultimately from Old Norse Thorsteinn, meaning "Thor's stone."

DWIGHT: English surname, derived from the medieval feminine personal name Diot, meaning "follower of Dionysos."

DYLLON: Variant spelling of the English surname Dillon, meaning "from Lyons."

DYLAN: Welsh name, composed of the elements dy "great" and llanw "sea," hence "great one of the sea." In mythology, this is the name of a sea god, son of Aranhod, and twin brother to Lleu Llaw Gyffes. Now in use as a surname too.

DYSON: English surname meaning "son of Dye."

EARL: English occupational surname for someone who worked for an Earl, derived from Old English eorl, meaning "leader, nobleman, prince."

EASON: English patronymic surname meaning "son of Eade."

EASTLEY: Old English surname meaning "the east meadow."

EATON: Old English surname of Norman French origin, composed of the elements ea "water" and ton "town," hence "water town." Also spelled Aiton.

EDEN: English surname, derived from Middle English Edun, from Anglo-Saxon Eadhun, meaning "rich Hun (bear)."

EDISON: English surname meaning "son of Eda."

EDSON: English surname meaning "son of Ed."

EGAN: English surname, derived from an Anglicised form of Irish Gaelic Aogán, meaning "burning, fiery."

ELDON: English surname, derived from the name of a place in county Durham, composed of the masculine name Ella and Old English dun "hill," hence "Ella's hill."

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ELLIOT: English surname, derived from Norman French Éliot, meaning "Yahweh is God."
ELLIS: English surname derived from the personal name Ellis, a medieval form of Greek Elias, meaning "Yahweh is God."
ELLRODT: German surname, probably derived from the place name Ellierode, a village in the Solling mountains in the valley of Schöttelbach Creek, meaning "wood clearing at the water."
ELMER: English surname, derived from Norman French Aylmer, from Anglo-Saxon Æthelmaer, meaning "nobly famous."
ELROD: Frequently found in southern states of the U.S., this name is an English altered spelling of the German surname Ellrodt, meaning "wood clearing at the water."
ELSDON: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Northumbria, composed of the personal name Ellis and Old English denu "valley," hence "Ellis's valley."
ELTON: English surname, composed of the Old English personal name Ella and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "Ella's settlement."
ELWOOD: English surname, possibly composed of the Old English elements ellern "elder tree" and wudu "wood," hence "elder tree forest."
EMERSON: English surname meaning "son of Emery."
EMERY: English surname, derived from a Norman name, probably Emauri, meaning "work-power."
EMMET: English surname, derived from the French feminine personal name Emmet, meaning "entire, whole."
ERROL: Scottish surname, derived from a place name possibly meaning "to wander."
ERISKINE: Scottish surname, derived from Eriskyne, a contracted form of the old Gaelic phrase air an sgian, meaning "upon the knife."
ERROL: Scottish surname, probably derived from the place name Erroll, used in the title Earl of Erroll, which is likely to have the same etymology as Earl, hence "leader, nobleman, prince."
ERSKINE: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Eriskine, meaning "upon the knife."
ESTLEY: Contracted form of the Old English surname Eastley, meaning "the east meadow."
EVELYN: English surname, derived from the Norman French personal name Aveline, meaning "little Eve."
EVERARD: Norman French form of Old High German Eberhard, meaning "strong as a boar." In use as a personal name and surname. It replaced Anglo-Saxon Eoforheard after the Norman invasion and was used in England during the 12th and 13th centuries.
EVERETT: English surname, derived from a variant of Norman French Everard, meaning "strong as a boar."
EWART: Scottish surname, possibly originally an Anglo-Norman form of English Edward, meaning "rich guard."
EWERT: Old English occupational surname, meaning "ewe-herder."
FAIRFAX: English surname, derived from a byname for someone with beautiful hair, composed of the Old English elements fæger "lovely" and feax "hair," hence "lovely hair."
FARLEY: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements fern "fern" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "fern meadow."
FARRAN: English surname, derived from the French personal name Ferrand, meaning

"ardent for peace."
FARRELL: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Fearghail "descendant of Fearghal," hence "man of valor."
FECHIN (pron. feh-kheen): Irish surname, probably a variant of Gaelic Feichin, meaning "little raven."
FÉFRE: French surname derived from a variant of the personal name Fiacre, a form of Irish Gaelic Fiachra, meaning "hunter king." A variant Fèvre exists.
FENN: English surname, derived from Old English fenn, meaning "fen, marsh."
FENTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places, composed of the Old English elements fenn "fen, marsh" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "marsh settlement."
FERRER: Catalan occupational surname meaning "blacksmith."
FÉVRE: Variant of the French surname Féfre, derived from a variant of the personal name Fiacre, a form of Irish Gaelic Fiachra, meaning "hunter king."
FIFE: Scottish surname meaning "from Fife," a place said to have gotten its name from the legendary Pictish hero Fib.
FINDLAY: English surname derived from Anglo-Scottish Finlay, meaning "white champion."
FINLAY: Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic Fionnlagh, meaning "white champion." Also spelled Finley. Also used as a surname.
FINLEY: Variant spelling of Anglo-Scottish Finlay, meaning "white champion." Also used as a surname.
FINNEGAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Fionnagáin "descendant of Fionnagán," hence "tiny little white one."
FITZROY: Irish name derived from an Anglo-Norman French surname, meaning "illegitimate son of the king."
FLANNERY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Flannabhra "descendant of Flannabhra," hence "red eyebrows."
FLEMMING: Medieval Danish surname derived from a byname meaning "from Flanders."
FLETCHER: English occupational surname, derived from Old French flechier (from Germanic fleche "arrow"), meaning "maker of arrows."
FLINDERS: English surname transferred to forename use, from an altered form of Flanders, denoting someone "from Flanders."
FLINT: English surname that may be topographical, denoting someone who "lives by an outcropping of flint stone," or perhaps derived from the old byname for someone "hard and tough as flint."
FLÖYD: Welsh surname, derived from a variant form of Lloyd, meaning "gray-haired."
FLYNN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Floinn, meaning "descendant of Flann," hence "red, ruddy."
FOLEY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Foghladha "descendant of Foghlaidh," hence "pirate, plunderer."
FORBES: Scottish surname, derived from the Gaelic word forba, meaning "district, field."
FORD: English surname, derived from the Old English word ford, meaning "ford, river crossing."
FORREST: English surname meaning "lives in or by an enclosed wood."

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FORTESCUE: English surname of Norman origin, composed of the French elements fort "strength" and escue "shield," hence "strong shield." Also spelled Fortesque.

FORTESQUE: Variant spelling of the English surname Fortescue, meaning "strong shield."

FOSTER: English occupational surname, which could have derived from any of the following: 1) Middle English foster, meaning "foster-parent," 2) forster, meaning "forester," 3) forster, meaning "shearer," or 4) fuyster, meaning "saddle-tree maker."

FOX: English surname, derived from an Old English byname, probably for a cunning person, meaning "fox."

FRANK: Surname and personal name of Germanic origin, originally denoting a member of the tribe of the Franks whose name supposedly came from a type of spear. After their country received its name, France, their tribal name came to mean "Frenchman." Today, the name Frank is given independently and also used as a short form of English Franklin "freeman," Francis "French," and other names beginning with Franc-/Frank-.

FRANKLIN: English surname, derived from the Middle English word frankeleyn, meaning "freeman."

FRASER: Scottish surname of Norman origin, of uncertain derivation due to corruption by association with the French word fraise, meaning "strawberry." Also spelled Frazer and Frazier.

FRAZER: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Fraser, which is of uncertain derivation due to corruption by association with the French word fraise, meaning "strawberry."

FRAZIER: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Fraser, which is of uncertain derivation due to corruption by association with the French word fraise, meaning "strawberry."

FREEMAN: English surname meaning "freeman."

FROST: English surname, derived from a byname for someone "stubborn, unbending" in disposition, or someone "white-headed."

FRY: English surname, possibly derived from a byname for "a small person," from Old Norse fríó, meaning "seed."

FULLERTON: Scottish surname, probably derived from a town name, meaning "fuller town," i.e. a town where cloth is made.

FULTON: Scottish surname, possibly a contracted form of the surname Fullerton, meaning "fuller town," i.e. a town where cloth is made. Fulton Mackay, a Scottish actor.

GABLE: English surname, possibly originally a habitation name derived from a place named from Old Norse gafi, meaning "gable," a term used to denote a "triangular-shaped hill."

GAGE: English occupational surname, derived from the Middle English word gage ("pledge, surety" against money lent), hence "moneylender."

GALLAGHER: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Gallchobhair "descendant of Gallchobhar," hence "foreign help."

GARDINER: Variant spelling of the English occupational surname Gardner, meaning "gardener, grounds-keeper."

GARDNER: English occupational surname, of Germanic origin, meaning "gardener, grounds-keeper." Also spelled Gardiner.

GARFIELD: English surname, composed of the Old English elements gara "triangular" (a derivative of gar "spear") and feld "open country," hence "lives by a triangular field."

GARLAND: English surname, composed of the Old English elements gara "triangular" (a derivative of gar "spear") and land "estate, cultivated land," hence "from the triangular estate."

GARNET: English surname derived from the name of the precious stone, "garnet," from a Middle English altered form of Old French (pome) grenate, "fruit full of seeds." It may have originally been an occupational surname for a seller of pomegranates. Also spelled Garnett.

GARNETT: Variant spelling of the English surname Garnet, meaning "garnet," the precious stone. Or, it may have originally been an occupational surname for a seller of pomegranates.

GARNIR: French occupational surname meaning "to warn, to call out," hence "town crier."

GARRET: English surname, derived from the personal names Gerald "spear ruler" and Gerard "spear firm." Also spelled Garrett.

GARRETT: Variant spelling of the English surname Garret, meaning "spear firm."

GARRICK, from the wasteland.

GARRIGUE, from the wasteland.

GARRISON: English surname, having two possible derivations: from the place name Garriston in North Yorkshire, possibly denoting a place where troops were stationed. Or a patronymic surname meaning "son of Garret." The name is now sometimes given to sons of fathers named Garry.

GARRY: English surname, originally a short form of Germanic names containing the element gar, meaning "spear."

GARTH: English surname, derived from Old Norse garðr ("enclosure"), denoting someone who "lives beside an enclosure."

GAYLORD: English surname, derived from a respelling of the Old French byname Gaillard, meaning "dandy."

GAYNOR: Irish surname derived from an Anglicised form of Gaelic Fionnbarr, meaning "fair-headed." Compare with the feminine personal name Gaynor.

GÉLARD: French surname, thought to probably be a form of Hebrew Gilad (English Gilead), meaning "hard, stony (or stone-like) region."

GERRARD: English surname, derived from the personal name Gerard, meaning "spear firm."

GILFORD: English surname, derived from a variant of the surname Guilford, composed of Old English gylde "golden" and ford "ford," hence "golden river crossing."

GILLEASBAIG: Contracted form of the Gaelic surname Gille Easbaig, meaning "bishop's servant."

GILLE EASBAIG: Gaelic surname, meaning "bishop's servant."

GILLESPIE: Scottish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Gilleasbaig, meaning "bishop's servant."

GILROY: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Mac Giolla Ruaidh ("son of the red-haired lad"), hence "the red-haired lad." Note: giolla in Gaelic means "lad, youth," but when used in a name connected with a saint, it is usually translated "servant."

GLADSTONE: Scottish surname, derived from the place name Gledstanes in Biggar in south Lanarkshire, Scotland, composed of Gaelic glede "falcon, hawk, kite," and Old English stan "stone," hence "kite stone."

GLADWIN: English surname, derived from Middle English Gladwyn, meaning "bright friend."

GLANVILLE: Old English surname meaning "clean field; clear open country."

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GLEN: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Glenn, meaning "valley."
GLENDOWER: Anglicised form of the Welsh surname Glyndŵr, meaning "valley water."
GLYNDŴR: Welsh surname, composed of the elements glyn "water" and dŵr "water," hence "valley water." Glendower is the Anglicised form.
GLENN: Scottish surname, derived from Gaelic gleann, meaning "valley." Also spelled Glen.
GODDARD: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name Godeheard, meaning "God's firmness."
GODWIN: Contracted form of the English surname Goodwin, meaning "God's friend."
GOMER: English surname, derived from a contracted form of Anglo-Saxon Godmær, meaning "good fame."
GOODWIN: English surname, derived from the Old English personal name Godwine, meaning "God's friend." Compare with Godwin.
GORDON: English (Celtic) surname, having many possible origins: from Gaelic gurtduine, meaning "a fierce man." Or from the name of a French town, meaning "round hill." Or from the name of a place in Berwickshire, Scotland, composed of the elements gor "spacious" and din "fort," hence "great fort." Or from Welsh cawrdyn, meaning "a giant" or "a hero." Or from Welsh gwrddyn, meaning "strong man."
GORONW (pron. gohr-on-oo): Variant spelling of the Anglo-Welsh surname Gronow, meaning "?-man."
GRADY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Gráda "descendant of Gráda," hence "noble."
GRAFTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places, composed of the Old English elements graf "grove" and tun "settlement, town," hence "grove town."
GRAHAM: Scottish surname, derived from Grantham, the name of a town in Lincolnshire, composed of the Old English elements grand "gravel" and ham "home," hence "gravel home."
GRAHAME: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Graham, meaning "gravel home."
GRANTHAM: Old English surname, derived from a place name composed of the elements grand "gravel" and ham "home," hence "gravel home."
GRANT: Scottish surname, derived from the name of a famous clan, from Norman grand, meaning "great, large."
GRANVILLE: English surname, derived from a Norman baronial name composed of the elements grand "large" and ville "settlement," hence "large settlement."
GRAY: Variant spelling of the English surname Grey, derived from a byname for someone having gray hair or a beard, from Old English græg, meaning "grey."
GRAYSON: English patronymic surname, derived from Middle English greyve "steward" from Old Norse greifi "count," hence "son of a steward."
GREER: Scottish surname, derived from a contracted form of the masculine personal name Gregor, meaning "watchful; vigilant." Also spelled Grier.
GRÉVILLE: English form of the Norman French baronial surname Gréville, meaning from the gravelly place."
GRÉVILLE: Norman French baronial surname, derived from the place name Gréville in La Manche, composed of the elements grave "gravel" and ville "place, town," hence "from the gravelly place."
GREY: English surname, derived from a byname for someone having gray hair or a beard,

from Old English græg, meaning "grey." Also spelled Gray.
GRIER: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Greer, meaning "watchful; vigilant."
GRIERSON: Scottish patronymic surname, meaning "son of Grier."
GRONNOW: Variant spelling of the Anglo-Welsh surname Gronow, meaning "?-man."
GRONOW (pron. gron-o): Welsh surname derived from an Anglicised form of the Celtic legend name Goronwy, meaning "?-man." Also spelled Goronw, and Gronw.
GRONW (pron. grohn-oo): Variant spelling of the Anglo-Welsh surname Gronow, meaning "?-man."
GROSVENOR: French surname, composed of the Anglo-Norman French elements gros "chief, great" and veneur "hunter," hence "chief hunter" or "great hunter."
GROVER: English surname, derived from Old English graf "grove," hence "lives in a grove."
GUARNIRE: Italian form of the French occupational surname Garnir, meaning "to warn, to call out," hence "town crier."
GUIDI: Italian surname derived from the personal name Guido, meaning "of the wood."
GUILLEMOT: French surname derived from the personal name Guillaume (English William), meaning "will-helmet."
GUISHART: Old English surname meaning "wise heart." Concerning this name, William Arthur's, author of An Etymological Dictionary of Family and Christian Names, 1857, states: "Some ancient writers say, that Robert, son of David, Earl of Huntingdon, took on him the cross, and distinguished himself in the Holy Land, where, from his gallant exploits against the Saracens, he received the name of Guishart." Later spelled Wishart.
GWYNNE: Welsh surname meaning "white."
HADLEY: English surname, composed of the Old English elements hæð "heathland, heather, wasteland" and leah "clearing, field, meadow" hence "heather meadow."
HADRIAN: English surname derived from Roman Hadrianus, meaning "from Hadria." Also spelled Adrian.
HADWIN: English surname, composed of the Old English elements hadu "strife, war" and win(e) "friend," hence "war-friend."
HAILEY: English surname, probably derived from Hailey, the name of a town in Oxfordshire, composed of the Old English elements heg "hay" and leah "field, meadow, pasture," hence "hay field." Some variant spellings include: Haily, Haley, Haly, and Hayley.
HAILY: Variant spelling of the English surname Hailey, meaning "hay field."
HALE: English surname, derived from Old English halh "nook, recess," hence "lives in a nook."
HALEY: Variant spelling of the English surname Hailey, meaning "hay field."
HALL: English surname, derived from Old English heall "hall," hence "lives at the hall."
HALY: Variant spelling of the English surname Hailey, meaning "hay field."
HAMILTON: Scottish surname transferred to English forename use, derived from Hameldune, the name of a place near Barkby in Leicestershire, England, from which the family took its name to Scotland, composed of the Old English elements hamel "blunt, crooked, flat-topped" and dun "hill," hence "flat-topped hill."
HAMMOND: English surname, derived from Norman French Hamon, meaning "home."
HAMSTZHELM: Teutonic surname meaning "defender of his companions."
HANLEY: From English O'Hanley ("descendant of Ainle"), hence "champion."

HARAKKA: Finnish surname meaning "magpie."
 HARBERT: Variant spelling of the English surname Herbert, meaning "bright army."
 HARCOURT: English surname, composed of the Old English elements *heafocere* "falconer, hawk" and *cot* "hut," hence "from the falconer's/hawker's hut."
 HARDING: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name *Hearding*, meaning "descended from the hard one."
 HARDY: English surname, derived from a byname for a courageous man, from Middle English/Old French *hardi*, meaning "brave, hardy, strong."
 HARLAN: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon surname *Harland*, meaning "hare's land."
 HARLAND: Anglo-Saxon surname, which may have derived from any of various places in England called *Harland*, composed of the Old English elements *hara* "hare" and *land* "land," hence "hare's land."
 HARLER: Probably from the Norman French byname for someone given to stirring up trouble, itself from *hareler* "to create a disturbance," hence "trouble-maker."
 HARLEY: English surname, derived from Old English *hær* "rock" and *leah* "meadow, pasture," hence "rocky meadow."
 HARLIN: English surname transferred to forename use, from the Norman French personal name *Herluin*, meaning "noble friend" or "noble warrior."
 HARMON: English surname, derived from the German personal name *Harman*, meaning "bold/hardy man."
 HARPER: English occupational surname meaning "harp player."
 HARRAD: Variant spelling of the English surname *Harrod*, meaning "army ruler."
 HARRIS: A derivative of the English surname *Harrison*, meaning "son of Harry."
 HARRISON: English patronymic surname meaning "son of Harry."
 HARROD: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name *Hereweald*, meaning "army ruler."
 HARTLEY: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places in England, many of which are composed of the Old English elements *heorot* "hart, male deer" and *leah* "meadow, pasture," hence "deer meadow."
 HARVARD: American English surname, derived from the Old Norse personal name *Hervarðr*, meaning "army-guard."
 HARVEY: English surname, derived from Breton *Haerveu*, meaning "battle worthy." Also: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname *Ó hAirmheadhaigh* ("descendant of *Airmheadhach*," a byname possibly meaning "cattle-herder."
 HASCALL: English surname, possibly meaning "a covert, a sheltered place."
 HAVELOCK: English surname meaning "sea war."
 HAVERHILL: English surname derived from the name of a town in Suffolk, England, composed of Dutch *hyver* "oats" and English *hill* "hill," hence "the hill sown with oats."
 HAWK: Variant spelling of the English surname *Hawke*, meaning either "hawk," denoting a rapacious individual with predatory traits, or "breeder/trainer of hawks."
 HAWKE: English surname, derived either from the Anglo-Saxon personal name *Hafoc*, meaning "hawk," denoting a rapacious individual with predatory traits, or, it may be an occupational name for a "breeder/trainer of hawks." Also spelled *Hawk*.

HAWKIN: English surname transferred to forename use, originally a medieval diminutive form of English *Hawk*, meaning "little hawk."
 HAWKING: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Hawk."
 HAWKINS: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Hawkin," a personal name meaning "little hawk."
 HAYDEN: English surname, composed of the Old English elements *heg* "hay" and *denu* "valley," hence "hay valley." Also spelled *Haydon*. In use in Scotland.
 HAYDN: German surname, derived from a respelling of the German byname *Heiden*, meaning "heathen."
 HAYDON: Variant spelling of the English surname *Hayden*, meaning "hay valley."
 HAYLEY: Variant spelling of the English surname *Hailey*, meaning "hay field."
 HAYWOOD: English surname, composed of the Old English elements *(ge)haeg* "enclosure" and *wudu* "wood," hence "enclosed wood."
 HEADLEY: Variant spelling of the English surname *Hedley*, meaning "heather meadow."
 HEATH: English surname meaning "heath."
 HEDLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places in England, composed of the Old English elements *hæð* "heather" and *leah* "clearing, field," hence "heather field" or "heather meadow." Also spelled *Headley*.
 HENDERSON: Scottish surname meaning "son of Hendry."
 HENFIELD: English baronial surname derived from a town name in west Sussex
 HERBERT: English surname derived from Anglo-Saxon *Herebeorht*, meaning "bright army." Also spelled *Harbert*.
 HERLIHY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic *Ó hIarfhlaitha* "descendant of *Iarfhlaith*," hence "lord of the west."
 HERMAN: English surname derived from the personal name *Herman*, meaning "army man."
 HÉROUARD: French surname, derived from the Old Norse personal name *Hervarðr*, meaning "army-guard."
 HERRICK: German surname, originally a personal name, composed of the elements *hari/heri* "army" and *ric* "power," hence "army power."
 HESKETH: English surname, derived from the name *Hesketh* in the county Palatine of Lancaster, composed of the Old Norse elements *hestr* "horse, stallion" and *skeiðr* "a kind of fast warship."
 HILL: English habitational surname, derived from Old English *hyll* ("hill"), meaning "lives on a hill."
 HILTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places, composed of the Old English elements *hyll* "hill" and *tun* "settlement, town," hence "hill town."
 HOBKINS: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Hob."
 HOFFMAN: German and Dutch surname, composed of the elements *hof* "court" and *man* "man," hence "man of the court."
 HOLBERT: English surname derived from the Middle English personal name *Holbert*, meaning "bright friend." Also spelled *Holdebert*, *Hulbert*, *Huldebert*, *Hulburd*, *Hulburt*.
 HOLDEBERT: English surname derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name *Holdbeorht*, meaning "bright friend."
 HOLMES: English surname, Middle English *holm* ("island"), derived from Old Norse *holmr*

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HOLDEN: English surname, composed of the Old English elements hol "deep, hollow, sunken" and denu "valley," hence "deep valley."

HOLLIS: English surname, derived from Old English holegn "holly" denoting someone who "lives near holly trees."

HOOVART: Variant spelling of the Dutch surname Hovart, meaning "army-guard."

HOPKIN: English surname, derived from the medieval personal name Hobkin, meaning "little Hob."

HOPKINS: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Hob."

HOVARD: Scottish surname, derived from the Old Norse personal name Hervarðr, meaning "army-guard."

HOVART: Dutch surname, derived from the Old Norse personal name Hervarðr, meaning "army-guard." Also spelled Hoovart.

HOWARD: English surname, derived from the personal name Haward, an Anglicised form of Danish/Norwegian Håvard, meaning "high guard."

HOWELL: English surname, derived from the Welsh personal name Hywel, meaning "eminent, conspicuous."

HOYT: English surname derived from a byname for a tall, skinny person, from Middle English hoit, meaning "long stick."

HUBBARD: English surname, derived from the Old French personal name Hubert, meaning "bright mind."

HUBEROWITZ: German-Jewish surname, meaning "son of Heber."

HUBERT: Abbreviated form of the Yiddish surname Hubertz, meaning "son of Heber." Also: From the Old French personal name Hubert, meaning "bright heart/mind/spirit."

HUBERTZ: Yiddish form of the German-Jewish surname Huberowitz, meaning "son of Heber."

HUDSON: English surname meaning "son of Hudde."

HUGHES: Welsh surname, derived from the personal name Huw, meaning "inspiration, fire."

HULDEBERT: Variant form of the English surname Holbert, meaning "bright friend."

HULBERT: Variant form of the English surname Holbert, meaning "bright friend."

HULBURD: Variant form of the English surname Holbert, meaning "bright friend."

HULBURT: Variant form of the English surname Holbert, meaning "bright friend."

HUMBOLDT: German surname, composed of the elements hun "bear cub, giant, Hun" and bold "brave, commanding," hence "giant command."

HUMPHREY: English surname derived from the personal name Humphrey, meaning "giant peace."

HUNTER: English occupational surname, meaning "hunter."

HUNTLEY: English surname, composed of the Old English elements hunta "hunter" and leah "clearing, wood," hence "hunter's wood."

HURLEY: Possibly a contracted form of the English Herlihy, meaning "lord of the west."

HUXLEY: English surname derived from the name of a place in Cheshire, composed of the Old English personal name Hucc and the word leah "clearing, wood," hence "Hucc's clearing/wood."

IBN EZRA (b'n-ez-rä): Jewish patronymic surname, meaning "son of Ezra," a personal name meaning "help." Variant: Abenezra. Rabbi Abraham ben Meir ibn Ezra, a distinguished

Jewish scholar of the Middle Ages, born in Tudela, Islamic Spain, he excelled in philosophy, medicine, linguistics and much more. He was known as Avenare by other scholars of his time, which is said to be a corruption of Abraham Judæus.

INGRAM: English surname, derived from the personal name Ingram, meaning "Ing's raven."

IRVINE: Scottish surname, thought to have been derived from the Celtic name of a river, composed of the Welsh elements ir/yr "fresh, green" and afon "water," hence "fresh water" or "green water."

IRVING: Scottish surname, of the same origin as Irvine, hence "fresh water" or "green water."

IRWIN: English surname, derived from the medieval English personal name Erwin, from Anglo-Saxon Eoforwine, meaning "boar friend."

ISARDO: Italian form of the German surname Ishard, meaning "hard as iron."

ISART: Old French form of the German surname Ishard, meaning "hard as iron."

ISBEL: Spanish surname, derived from a contracted form of the personal name Isabel, meaning "God is my oath."

ISHARD: German surname, probably composed of the elements Is- from isen/eisen "iron," and hard "hard, strong," hence "hard as iron."

JACKSON: English patronymic surname meaning "son of Jack."

JACOX: English surname derived from Jackcock, an old pet form of John, meaning "God is gracious."

JAGER: Danish and German surname meaning "hunter." Also spelled Yager.

JAGGER: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English jag ("load, pack"), meaning "hawker, peddler."

JAGO: Cornish surname derived from the personal name Jago, meaning "supplanter."

JAMARD: French surname, derived from German Gamhard, meaning "happy and healthy."

JAMES: English surname of the same origin as the personal English and French name, which is a vernacular form of Late Latin Jacomus, meaning "supplanter."

JAMESON: English patronymic surname transferred to forename use, meaning "son of James."

JAMIESON: English and Scottish patronymic surname, meaning "son of Jamie."

JARRETT: Variant spelling of the English surname Garrett, meaning "spear ruler" and "spear firm."

JARVIS: English surname, which was originally as a Middle English form of Norman French Gervaise, meaning "spear servant."

JEAVON: Medieval English surname, derived from the Norman French term of endearment jovene, meaning "young one." Also spelled Jevon.

JERVIS: Variant spelling of the English surname Jarvis, meaning "spear servant."

JEFFERSON: English surname meaning "son of Jeffrey."

JENKIN: English surname, derived from the Middle English personal name Jankin/Jenkin, meaning "God is gracious." Common in Wales.

JENKINS: English surname, meaning "son of Jenkin." Common in Wales.

JERROLD: English surname, derived from the personal name Gerald, meaning "spear ruler."

JEVON: Variant spelling of the Medieval English surname Jeavon, derived from the Norman French term of endearment jovene, meaning "young one."

JOCELYN: English surname, derived from the Old French personal name Joscelin, meaning

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"Gaut."

JOYCE: Irish surname, derived from the Middle English personal name Josse, from Norman French Josce, meaning "lord."

JORDAN: English surname derived from the medieval personal name Jordan, a Biblical name, meaning "flowing down."

JUDGE: Jewish Anglicised form of the Norman French surname Juge, meaning "judge," especially a rabbinic judge. This is a translation of the Hebrew surname Dayan. Also: Irish Anglicised translation of the Gaelic patronymic surname Mac an Bhreitheamhnaigh, meaning "son of the Judge."

JUGE: Norman French surname derived from the vocabulary word juge, meaning "judge." Usually appears in the form de Juge, "the judge." It is uncertain whether this was originally an occupational name or a byname for someone having the qualities of a judge.

JUNIPER: English matronymic surname, meaning "descendant of Jennifer," a personal name meaning "white and smooth."

KAYLEY: English surname derived from the name of a town in county Lancashire, composed of the Anglo-Saxon personal name Cæga and the Old English element leah "clearing, farm, settlement," hence "Cæga's clearing or farm." Also: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Caollaidhe, meaning "descendant of Caolladhe," a personal name meaning "slender."

KEARNEY: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Cearnaigh, meaning "descendant of Cearnaigh," a personal name meaning "victor, winner."

KEATON: English surname, probably derived from the place name Keaton in Ermington, Devon, composed of the Cornish word kee "bank, hedge" and Old English tun "settlement," hence "settlement on the bank."

KEEFE: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Caoimh, meaning "descendant of Caomh," a personal name meaning "beloved, comely."

KEEGAN: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Mac Aodhagáin, meaning "son of Aodhagán," a personal name meaning "burning, fiery."

KEELAHAN: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Céileacháin, meaning "descendant of Céileachain," a personal name meaning "little companion."

KEELAN: Contracted form of the Anglo-Irish surname Keelahan, meaning "little companion."

KEENAN: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Cianáin, meaning "descendant of Cianán, a personal name meaning "little ancient one."

KEELEY: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Caollaidhe, meaning "descendant of Caolladhe," a personal name meaning "slender."

KEIR: Variant spelling of the Scottish surname Kerr, meaning "from the brushland."

KEITH (kēth): Scottish surname, derived from the name of the parish and lands of Keith in Banffshire, Scotland, the origin of which is much disputed. I prefer the old derivation from Gaelic gaath, meaning "wind," supported by the name Arkeith which is what the old village and kirk are called and which William Arthur has suggested may be a corruption of the Gaelic Ard Gaoth, signifying "high wind."

KELLEY: Variant spelling of the English surname Kelly, meaning "contention, strife."

KELLIE: Variant spelling of the English surname Kelly, meaning "contention, strife."

KELLY: From the Irish surname Ó'Kelly, an Anglicised form of Gaelic O'Cealaigh, meaning

"descendant of Ceallach," a personal name meaning "contention, strife." Also spelled Kelley and Kellie.

KELSEY: English surname, derived from the Old Anglo-Saxon personal name Céolsige, meaning "ship-victory."

KEMP or KEMPER: English occupational surname from the Middle English word kempe "athlete, wrestler," from German and Old English kempa, meaning "champion, warrior."

KENDALL: English surname, derived from the Welsh masculine personal name Cynddelw, meaning "exalted effigy."

KENDRICK: English surname, probably derived from the Middle English personal name Cenric, meaning "keen power."

KENNEDY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Cinnéidigh, meaning "ugly head."

KENT: English surname meaning "from Kent."

KENTON: English surname, composed of Old English Cena and tun "settlement," hence "Cena's settlement."

KENYON: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Mac Coinín "son of Coinín," hence "little wolf."

KERR: Scottish surname meaning "from the brushland." Also spelled Keir.

KIEFER: German surname, derived from the word kiefer, a blend of kien and forhe, both meaning "pine tree."

KILLEAN: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Cillín, meaning "little church."

KILLEEN: Variant spelling of the English surname Killeen, meaning "little church."

KILLEN: Variant spelling of the English surname Killin, meaning "little church."

KILLIN: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Cillín, meaning "little church."

KIMBALL: English surname, derived from the Middle English personal name Kimbel, meaning "royal courage."

KIMBERLEY: English surname derived from the name of a South African town first brought to the public's notice by the Boer War in the 19th century. The town was named for Lord Kimberley whose ancestors derived their name from a place in England composed of the Old English elements cyne "king," burg "city" and leah "meadow, pasture," hence "King's City Meadow."

KINGSLEY: English surname derived from the name of various places called Cyningesleah, composed of the Old English elements cyne "king," and leah "meadow, pasture," hence "king's meadow."

KIRBY: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old Norse elements kirkja "church" and býr "settlement," hence "church settlement."

KIRK: English surname, derived from an English and Scottish byname for someone who "lives near a church," from the Old Norse word kirkja, meaning "church."

KNICKERBACKER: Dutch and German occupational surname composed of the elements knacker "cracker" and backer "baker," hence "cracker baker."

KNOX: English surname, derived from Old English cnocc "round-topped hill," hence "lives on a hilltop."

KÖLBER: German occupational surname for a "maker of wooden clubs" and later an "armor-maker," derived from Middle High German kolbe, meaning "cudgel, club."

KOLBERT: Variant form of German Kölber, an occupational surname for a "maker of wooden clubs" and later an "armor-maker."

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KONG (孔): Chinese surname meaning "hole" or "opening."

KYLE: Scottish surname derived from the name of various places named from Gaelic caol "narrow," hence "slender."

KYLER: German surname, derived from the personal name Kilian, meaning "little warrior."

KYNASTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places named in Old English Cynefripestun, meaning "settlement of Cynefrið."

LAMONT: Scottish surname, derived from the medieval Swedish personal name Lagman, meaning "lawman."

LONDON: Contracted form of the English surname Langdon, meaning "long hill."

LANE: English topographic surname, derived from Old English lane "narrow pathway," hence "lives by a lane."

LANGDON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements lang "long" and dun "hill," hence "long hill."

LANGFORD: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements lang "long" and ford "ford," hence "long river crossing."

LARKIN: English surname, derived from a medieval pet form of English Laurence, meaning "of Laurentum."

LAVERGNE: French surname meaning "the alder (tree)."

LAWSON: English surname meaning "son of Law."

LEE: English surname, derived from the Old English word leah, meaning "meadow."

LEIGHTON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements leac "leek" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "leek garden."

LEITH: Scottish surname, derived from the name of a river of Celtic origin, meaning "flowing water."

LELAND: English surname, composed of the Middle English elements ley "fallow" and land "land," hence "fallow land."

LEMOINE: French surname, derived from the Old French word moine, meaning "monk."

LENNON: Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Leannáin "descendant of Leannán," hence "little cloak."

LENNOX: Scottish surname meaning "place of elms."

LESLIE: Scottish surname, derived from the place name Lesslyn in Aberdeenshire which got its name from Gaelic leas cuilinn, meaning "garden of hollies."

LESTER: English surname, derived from the city name Leicester which was recorded in the 10th century as Ligora caester "Ligora's fort." Ligora is related to Liguria, a very old place name of obscure origin, dating back to pre-Roman times. There has been some speculation concerning a possible connection between Ligora/Liguria and Celtic Lug, meaning "oath."

LEWIN: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name Leofwine, meaning "beloved friend."

LEWIS: English surname derived from the personal name, itself an English form of French Louis, meaning "famous warrior."

LINCOLN: English surname, derived from the name of the city of Lincoln, which was originally called Lindum colonia, meaning "lake colony."

LINFORD: Old English surname, composed of the elements hlyn "maple" and ford "ford," hence "maple tree ford."

LINDSAY: Scottish surname, composed of the name Lincoln and the Old English word ey "wetland," hence "Lincoln's wetlands."

LINTON: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places in England most of which were composed of the Old English elements lin "cotton, flax" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "cotton/flax settlement."

LLOYD: Welsh surname, derived from Celtic Llwyd, meaning "gray-haired."

LOGAN: Scottish surname, derived from the name of a place in Ayrshire, meaning "hollow, lowland."

LONDON: English surname denoting someone "from London." But it may have pre-Celtic roots and have originally meant something like "place at the unfordable river."

LOREDAN: Italian surname, meaning "laurel grove."

LORRAINE: French surname, derived from the name of a French province, Lorraine, from Roman Lotharingia, meaning "land of the people of Lothar."

LOVELL: English surname, derived from the English personal name Lovell, meaning "little wolf."

LOWELL: English surname, derived from the Old Norman French byname Louvel, meaning "little wolf."

LUBBERT: German surname, derived from the personal name Liutbert, meaning "people-bright."

LYALL: Scottish surname, derived from the Old Norse personal name Liulfr, possibly meaning "shield wolf."

LYLE: Scottish surname, derived from the Norman French phrase de l'isle, meaning "from the island."

LYNDON: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old English elements lind "linden, lime tree" and dun "hill," hence "lime tree hill."

MAC AIRT: Gaelic surname meaning "son of the east." In Irish legend, this is the surname of Cormac, the father of Gráinne.

Mac ALASDAIR: Scottish Gaelic patronymic surname meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind." Its numerous variants include Mac Alester, Mac Alister, Mac Allaster, Mac Allister, Mac Allyster, Makalester, Makalestyr.

Mac ALESTER: Variant of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Alasdair," meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind."

Mac ALISTER: Variant of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Alasdair," meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind."

Mac ALLASTER: Variant of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Alasdair," meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind."

Mac ALLISTER: Variant of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Alasdair," meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind."

Mac ALLYSTER: Variant of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Alasdair," meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind."

MacAMBROIS (MacAmbrois): Irish surname meaning "son of Ambrois."

Mac ANDREW: Modern form of the Scottish surname Macandro, meaning "son of Andrew."

Mac AN BHREITHEAMHNAIGH: Irish Gaelic patronymic surname meaning "son of the Judge."

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MacANDRO: Early Scottish surname, meaning "son of Andrew." Also spelled Makandro.

Mac AODHAGÁIN: Gaelic surname meaning "son of Aodhagán," a personal name meaning "burning, fiery."

Mac BREHENY: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic occupational surname Mac an Bhreitheamhnaigh, meaning "son of the Judge."

Mac DHUIBHSHÍTHE (Mac Dhuibhshíthe): Gaelic surname meaning "son of Duibhshíth," a personal name meaning "black peace."

MacDONNCHADH (MacDonnchadh): Gaelic surname meaning "son of Donnchadh."

MACEY: From a variant form of the English surname Massey, meaning "gift of God."

MacKENZIE: Anglicised form of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Coinnich "son of Coinneach," hence "comely; finely made."

MacLELLAN: Anglicised form of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Gille Fhaolain and the Irish Gaelic surname Mac Giolla Fhaoláin, both meaning "son of the servant of Faolán," a personal name meaning "little wolf."

Mac GILLE FHAOLAIN: Scottish Gaelic surname meaning "son of the servant of Faolán," a personal name meaning "little wolf."

Mac GIOLLA FHAOLÁIN: Irish Gaelic surname meaning "son of the servant of Faolán," a personal name meaning "little wolf." Note: giolla in Gaelic means "lad, youth," but when used in a name connected with a saint, it is usually translated "servant."

Mac GIOLLA RUAIDH: Gaelic surname derived from an giolla ruadh ("the red-haired lad"), hence "son of the red-haired lad." Note: giolla in Gaelic means "lad, youth," but when used in a name connected with a saint, it is usually translated "servant."

MacGREGOR (MacGregor): Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic MacGriogair, meaning "son of Gregor."

MacGRIOGAIR (MacGriogair): Gaelic patronymic surname, meaning "son of Griogair."

Mac IOMHAIR: Scottish Gaelic surname meaning "son of Iomhar (Ívarr)," a personal name meaning "bow warrior."

McIVER (McIver): Anglicised form of the Scottish surname Mac Iomhair, meaning "son of Iomhar (Ívarr)," a personal name meaning "bow warrior."

Mac PHIAIRAIS: Irish surname meaning "son of Piaras," the Gaelic form of Greek Petros/English Peter, meaning "rock, stone."

MADDOX: English surname, derived from the Welsh personal name Madog, meaning "little fortunate one" or "little good one."

MADISON: English surname meaning "son of Madde."

MAITLAND: English and Scottish surname, derived from a byname for an ungracious person, from Anglo-Norman French maltalent/mautalent, meaning "bad tempered."

MAJOR: English surname, derived from the Norman French personal name Mauger, meaning "work-spear."

MAKANDRO: Early Scottish surname, meaning "son of Andrew." Also spelled Macandro.

MAKANGUS: Early Scottish surname, meaning "son of Aonghus."

MAKALESTER: Variant spelling of the Scottish Gaelic surname Makalestyr, meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind."

MAKALESTYR: An older form of the Scottish Gaelic surname Mac Alasdair, meaning "son of Alasdair," a personal name meaning "defender of mankind." First recorded in 1455. Also

spelled Makalester.

MALLORY: English surname, derived from a Norman French byname for an unfortunate person, from Old French malheure, meaning "unfortunate, unhappy, unlucky."

MALONE: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Maoil Eoin, meaning "devotee of St. Eoin (John)."

MANLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements (ge)mæne "common, shared" and leah "meadow, pasture," hence "common meadow."

MARCH: English surname, derived from the Norman French word march, meaning "boundary."

MARLOWE: English surname, derived from a place name in Buckinghamshire, composed of the Old English elements mere "lake, pool" and lafe "leavings, remnants," hence, "marshland."

MARSHALL: English surname, derived from a Norman French occupational term denoting someone who was a "keeper of horses," composed of the Germanic elements morah "horse" and scalc "servant." By the time it became a surname it had acquired the meaning "shoeing smith."

MASON: English occupational surname, derived from French maçon, meaning "mason, stone-worker."

MASSEY: This English surname was originally a pet form of English Matthew, meaning "gift of God."

MASTERMAN: English occupational surname, meaning "man of the master," i.e. "retainer" or "servant."

MAVERICK: English surname, derived from the vocabulary word maverick, originally meaning "unbranded range animal." This was the surname of Samuel Maverick (1803-1870), a Texas cattleman who refused to brand his cattle.

MAXWELL: Scottish surname, derived from the place name Maxwell, meaning "the stream of Mack."

MAYNARD: English surname, derived from the Norman personal name Mainard, meaning "strong and hardy."

MCCADDEN (McCadden): Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Mac Cadáin, meaning "son of Cadán."

MCCAMBRIDGE (McCambridge): Anglicised form of the Irish surname MacAmbrois, meaning "son of Ambrois."

MCCOY (McCoy): Variant spelling of the Irish surname McKay, meaning "son of a hound."

MCDONALD or MAC DONALD: Gaelic Mac Dhòmhnaill, equivalent to "son of Donald".

McKAY (McKay): Variant spelling of the Irish surname McKie, meaning "son of a hound."

McKENNA: Irish and Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic Mac Cionadha, meaning "son of Cionadh," hence "born of fire."

McKIE (McKie): Irish Gaelic surname, composed of the elements mac "son" and kei/ki/cu "wolf-dog," hence "son of a hound."

MEAD: English surname, denoting someone who "lives by a meadow."

MELBOURNE: English surname, composed of the Old English elements mylla "mill" and burne "stream," hence "mill stream."

MELVILLE: Scottish surname of Norman French origin, derived from the name of various

places in Normandy called Malleville, meaning "bad settlement."

MÉRAUD: French surname, derived from the word emeraude, meaning "emerald."

MERIWEATHER: English surname, derived from a byname for someone having a sunny disposition, composed of the Middle English elements merry "cheerful, lively" and wether "weather," hence "cheerful weather."

MERRICK: English surname, derived from an Old Norman French personal name composed of the Germanic elements mari/meri "fame" and ric "power," hence "famous power."

MERRILL: English surname, derived from the personal name Meriel, meaning "sea-bright."

MERRITT: English surname, derived from the Old English term moere gaet, meaning "boundary gate."

MERTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements mere "lake, pool" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "lake settlement."

MILBURN: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Cumbria, composed of the Old English elements mylen "mill" and burna "stream," hence "mill-stream."

MILFORD: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old English elements mylen "mill" and ford "ford," hence "mill ford."

MILLARD: Contracted form of the Middle English occupational surname Millward, meaning "mill-guard."

MILLER: English occupational surname, derived from the Old English mylen "mill".

MILLWARD: Middle English form of the Anglo-Saxon occupational surname Millweard, meaning "mill-guard."

MILLWEARD: Anglo-Saxon occupational surname, composed of the Old English elements mylen "mill" and weard "guardian," hence "mill-guard."

MILTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places, most of which were name from the Old English word mylentun, meaning "mill settlement."

MITCHELL: English surname, derived from a medieval form of Michael, meaning "who is like God?"

MONROE: Scottish surname, derived from Irish Munro, meaning "from the mount on the river Roe," in Ireland, where the family came from.

MONTAGUE: English surname, originally a Norman baronial name composed of the Old French elements mont "hill, mountain" and aigu "pointed," hence "pointed mountain."

MONTGOMERY: English surname, originally a Norman baronial name composed of Old French mont "hill" and the Germanic personal name Gomeri, hence "hill of Gomeri."

MONTMORENCY: English surname, originally a Norman baronial name composed of Old French mont "hill" and Germanic Morency, hence "hill of Morency."

MORIARTY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Muircheartaigh "descendant of Muirheartach," hence "skilled seaman."

MORLEY: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old English elements mor "marsh, moor," and leah "meadow, pasture," hence "marsh meadow."

MORRISSEY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Muirgheasa "descendant of Muirgheas," hence "sea-taboo."

MORTIMER: Norman baronial surname, composed of the Old French elements morte "dead" and mer "sea," hence "dead sea," which may have referred to either the Biblical Dead Sea or a stagnant marsh.

MORTIMER: English form of Norman French surname Mortemer, meaning "dead sea," which may have referred to either the Biblical Dead Sea or a stagnant marsh.

MORTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places named from Old English mortun, meaning "settlement on the moor."

MOSS: English surname, derived from medieval Jewish personal name Moss, meaning "drawn out."

MOUNTBATTEN: Anglicised surname. The Mountbatten family is a European dynasty originating as a branch of the German princely Battenberg family.

MUNRO: Irish surname, derived from Monadh Roe or Mont Roe, meaning "from the mount on the river Roe." This is the name from which Scottish Monroe was derived.

MUNROE: Variant spelling of the Irish surname Munro, meaning "from the mount on the river Roe."

MURDOCK: Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic Muireadhach, meaning "sea warrior."

MURGATROYD: English surname, derived from a place name meaning "the clearing belonging to Margaret."

MURPHY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Murchadha "descendant of Murchadh," hence "sea-warrior."

MURRAY: Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic Muireach, meaning "sea warrior."

MYLLÄRI: Finnish occupational surname, composed of the vocabulary word myllä "a mill," and the suffix -ra (same meaning as -ja), denoting a doer, hence "miller." Note: the termination -ra in this name is not a Finnish original; it was borrowed from Swedish -re.

NASH: English topographic surname, derived from Middle English atten ash ("at the ash"), hence "lives by an ash tree."

NELSON: English, Scottish or Scandinavian patronymic surname meaning "son of Neil."

NEVILLE: English surname, derived from a Norman baronial name meaning "new town."

NEVIN: Irish Anglicised form of either Gaelic Cnámhin, a byname for a skinny man meaning "little bone," or from Gaelic Naomhán, meaning "little saint."

NEWTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements neowe "new" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "new settlement."

NILES: English patronymic surname meaning "son of Neal."

NÍ MHÁILLE: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Malley."

NOLAN: Irish Anglicised form of Ó Nualláin "descendant of Nuallán," hence "little champion" or "little chariot fighter."

NORRIS: English surname, derived from the Old Norman French word norreis, meaning "from the north."

NORTON: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old English elements norð "north" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "northern settlement."

NORWOOD: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements norð "north" and wudu "wood," hence "north wood."

O'CALLAGHAN: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname O Ceallachain, meaning "descendant of Ceallachán," a personal name meaning "little Ceallach (Kelly)."

Ó CAOIMH: Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Caomh," a personal name meaning "beloved, comely."

Ó CAOLLADHE: Irish Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Caolladhe," a personal name meaning "slender." O'Kealy and O'Keely are Anglicised forms.

Ó CEALLACHAIN: Irish Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Ceallachán," a personal name meaning "little Ceallach." O'Callaghan is an Anglicised form.

Ó CEALLAIGH: Irish Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Ceallach," a personal name meaning "contention, strife, war." O'Kelly is an Anglicised form.

Ó CEARNAIGH: Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Cearnaigh," a personal name meaning "victor, winner." Kearney is an Anglicised form.

Ó CÉILEACHAIN: Irish Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Ceileachain," a personal name meaning "little companion." Keelahan is an Anglicised form.

Ó CIANÁIN: Irish Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Cianán, a personal name meaning "little ancient one."

Ó CILLIN: Irish Gaelic surname, derived from the name of a small village in the county of Tyrone, Ireland, meaning "little church." Ó Cuidighthigh

O'CONNOR: Anglicisation of an Irish surname meaning "son or descendant of Conor".

Ó CUIDIGHTHIGH: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Cuidightheach," a personal name meaning "helper."

ODELL: English surname, derived from a place name, composed of the Old English elements wad "woad (a plant yielding blue dye)" and hyll "hill," hence "woad hill."

Ó DONNDUBHÁIN: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Donndubhán," a personal name meaning "little dark brown one."

Ó DUBHÁIN: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Dubhán," a personal name meaning "little black one."

Ó DUBHSHLAINE: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Dubhshláine," a personal name meaning "black challenger."

Ó DUIBHUIDHIR: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Duibhuidhir," a personal name meaning "black or dark wisdom."

OGDEN: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements ac "oak" and denu "valley," hence "oak valley."

O'GRIFFEY: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Griobhtha, meaning "descendant of Griobhtha," a personal name meaning "griffin-like."

Ó GRÍOBHTHA: Irish Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Griobhtha," a personal name meaning "griffin-like." O'Griffey is an Anglicised form.

Ó HAIRMHEADHAIGH (Ó hAirmheadhaigh): Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Airmheadhach," a byname possibly meaning "cattle-herder."

Ó HEACHTHIGHEARNA: Gaelic surname meaning "descendant of Eachthighearna," a personal name meaning "lord of horses."

O'HANLEY: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó hÁinle, meaning "descendant of Áinle."

O'KEALY: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Caollaidhe, meaning "descendant of Caolladhe," a personal name meaning "slender."

O'KEELY: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Caollaidhe, meaning "descendant of Caolladhe," a personal name meaning "slender."

O'KELLY: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Ceallaigh, meaning "descendant of Ceallach," a personal name meaning "contention, strife, war."

O'MALLEY: Anglicised form of the Irish Gaelic surname Ó Máille, meaning "descendant of the stately one."

Ó MÁILLE: Irish Gaelic surname, probably derived from the word mí-¹/₂ille ("stateliness"), hence "descendant of the stately one." O'Malley is an Anglicised form.

ONDERDONK: Dutch surname, probably originally a byname for someone owing thanks to someone for pardoning an offense, composed of the elements onder "under" and dank "gratitude, thankfulness," hence "under gratitude."

Ó RIAIN: Gaelic surname, meaning "descendant of Rian."

ORMEROD: English surname, composed of the Old Norse name Ormarr and Old English rod "clearing," hence "Ormarr's clearing."

ORMOND: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Ruaidh, meaning "descendant of Ruadh."

ORRELL: English surname, composed of the Old English elements ora "ore" and hyll "hill," hence "ore hill."

ORSON: English surname, derived from the old Norman French byname ourson, a diminutive of ours "bear," hence "little bear" or "bear cub."

OSBOURNE: English surname, derived from a variant form of Osborn, meaning "divine-bear."

OSGOOD: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name Osgod, meaning "divine Gaut."

OTIS: English surname meaning "son of Otto."

PACE: English surname, derived from the French personal name Pascal, meaning "Passover; Easter."

PAGE: English surname, derived from a status name for a young boy who was apprenticed to a knight, hence "page; young servant."

PAISLEY: Scottish Anglicised form of Gaelic Pàislig, possibly meaning "church."

PALMER: English surname, derived from Latin palma, meaning "palm tree." Before it was a surname, Palmer was an old byname for "a pilgrim," someone who had been on a pilgrimage to the Holy Land and brought back a palm branch as proof that they had actually been there.

PARKER: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English parc "park," hence "park-keeper." Note: in the Middle Ages a park was an enclosed area where the park-owner hunted game.

PARRY: Welsh Anglicised form of ap Harry, meaning "son of Harry."

PAYTON: English surname, derived from a place name composed of Old English Pæga and the word tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "Pæga's settlement."

PERCY: English surname, derived from a Norman French baronial name, itself from the Gallo-Roman personal name Persius (probably meaning "soldier"), but reanalyzed as a compound of Old French perce(r) "pierced" and haie "hedge," hence "pierced hedge." The name is often used as a pet form of Percival, meaning "pierced valley."

PERRY: English topographic surname, meaning "lives by a pear tree."

PIPER: English occupational, derived from Middle English pipere, meaning "pipe-player."

POPKYN: Welsh equivalent of the English surname Hopkin, meaning "son of Rob."

PORTER: English occupational surname meaning "doorkeeper."

PRESTON: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old English elements preost "priest" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "priest's

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settlement."

PRICE: English surname, derived from the Middle English element pris, meaning "price" or "prize."

PRYCE: Welsh surname, derived from ap Rhys, meaning "son of Rhys."

QUINCY: English surname, derived from the Norman baronial name Cuinchy, a derivative of Roman Quintus, meaning "fifth."

QUINLAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Caoindealbhán "descendant of Caoindealbhán," hence "little fair-formed one."

QUINN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Coinn "descendant of Conn," hence "chief, freeman, head, hound, intelligence, strength."

QUINTON: English surname, derived from the name of several places composed of the Old English elements cwen "queen" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "queen's settlement."

RADCLIFF: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements read "red" and clif "cliff, slope, riverbank," hence "red cliff."

RADLEY: English surname, derived from the name of a place composed of the Old English elements read "red" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "red meadow."

RAIN: English surname, derived from a German short form of various names containing the element ragin ("advice, counsel"), hence "wise."

RALEIGH: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Devon composed of the Old English elements read "red" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "red meadow."

RAMSAY: Scottish surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old English elements hramsa "wild garlic" and eg "island," hence "wild-garlic island."

READ: English surname, derived from an Old English byname, Red, meaning "red-headed or ruddy-complexioned."

REAGAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Riagáin, "descendant of Riagán," hence "furious, impulsive."

RÉGIS: French occupational surname, derived from Old French régir ("to rule or manage"), hence "manager, ruler."

RETALLACK: Cornish surname, derived from the name Talek ("broad-browed" or "high-browed"), hence "the high-brow."

RHETT: American English surname, derived from Dutch de Raedt, from Middle Dutch raet, meaning "advice."

RIDLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements hreed "reeds" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "reed meadow."

RIGBY: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old Norse elements hryggr "ridge" and býr "farm, settlement," hence "ridge settlement."

RILEY: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old English elements ryge "rye" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "rye meadow."

RIPLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements ripel "strip of land" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "cleared strip of land."

RODNEY: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Germanic name Hroda and the word eg "fen, island," hence "Hroda's fen/island."

ROOSEVELT: Dutch surname, composed of the elements roose "roses" and velt "open

country," hence "field of roses."

ROSCOE: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old Norse elements rá "roe-deer" and skógr "copse, wood," hence "roe-deer wood."

ROSS: Scottish surname, derived from the Gaelic word ros, meaning "headland, promontory."

ROWAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ruadhán, meaning "little red one."

ROYCE: English surname, derived from the medieval feminine name Royse, which is probably a horse-related name.

ROYLE: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old English elements ryge "rye" and hyll "hill," hence "rye hill."

ROYSTON: English surname, derived from a place name known in the Middle Ages as "settlement of Royce."

RUDYARD: English surname meaning "red paddock" or "red yard."

RUSSELL: English surname, derived from the Old French byname Rousel, meaning "little red one."

RYAN: Irish Anglicised form of the Gaelic surname Ó Riain, meaning "descendant of Rian."

RYLAND: English surname composed of the Old English elements ryge "rye" and land "land," hence "rye land."

SABELLA: Italian surname, derived from the feminine personal name Isabella, meaning "God is my oath."

SACHEVERELL: Old Norman French surname, derived from the place name Saute-Chevreuil, meaning "roe-buck leap."

SANFORD: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old English elements sand "sand" and ford "ford," hence "sandy river crossing."

SAWYER: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English saghier, meaning "to saw."

SCARLETT: English occupational surname for a "dyer" or "seller of fabrics," derived from Old French escarlata, meaning "scarlet cloth."

SCHMIDT or SCHMID: German surname meaning "smith."

SCHOONHOVEN: Dutch surname, composed of the elements schoon "beautiful" and hoven "gardens," hence "beautiful gardens."

SCHUYLER: Dutch surname meaning "protection, shelter."

SCHWEIG: German surname meaning "peaceful, quiet."

SCOTT: Old Scottish surname, derived from a byname for a "Scotsman."

SEARLE: Germanic surname and personal name derived from the word serilo (Old English searo), meaning "arms, armor."

SEFTON: English surname, derived from a place name composed of Old Norse sef "rush" and Old English run "enclosure, settlement," hence "rush settlement."

SELBY: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old Norse elements selja "willow" and býr "farm, settlement," hence "willow settlement."

SEWARD: English surname, derived from a Middle English form of Anglo-Saxon Siweard, meaning "sea guard."

SEYMOUR: English surname, derived from the Norman baronial name Saint-Maur, meaning "St. Maurus."

SHAW: English surname meaning "copse, wood."

SHEA: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Séaghdha ("descendant of Séaghdha"), possibly meaning "hawk-like."

SHELBY: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Middle English elements schele "hut" and by "farm, settlement," hence "settlement of huts."

SHELDON: English surname, derived from the name of a place in Derbyshire which was recorded in the Domesday Book as Scelhadun, composed of Old English scylf "shelf" and the place name Haddon (from hæð "heathland, heather, wasteland" + dun "hill"), hence "steep-sided heather hill."

SHELLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places meaning "clearing near a ledge/slope."

SHELTON: English surname, derived from various place names composed of the Old English elements scylf "shelf" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "shelf settlement."

SHERIDAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Sirideáin ("descendant of Siridei; 1/2n"), possibly meaning "searcher."

SHERMAN: English occupational surname, composed of the Old English elements scera "shears" and mann "man," hence "shears-man."

SHERWOOD: English surname, derived from the name of the famous Sherwood Forest, composed of the Old English elements scir "bright, clear, shire" and wudu "wood," hence "bright forest."

SHIRLEY: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements scir "bright" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "bright meadow."

SIDNEY: English surname, derived from a Norman baronial name meaning "St. Denis."

SINCLAIR: Scottish surname, derived from a Norman baronial place name in France called "Saint-Clair."

SLADE: English surname, derived from Middle English slade, meaning "small valley."

SLOANE: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Sluaghadháin, "descendant of Sluaghadhán," hence "little raider."

SOROKA: Russian surname meaning "magpie."

SPENCER: English occupational surname meaning "dispenser (of provisions)."

STAFFORD: English surname, derived from a place name composed of the Old English elements stað "landing place" and ford "ford," hence "landing place at the river crossing."

STANFORD: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements stan "stone" and ford "ford," hence "stony river crossing."

STANLEY: English surname, derived from the name of numerous places composed of the Old English elements stan "stone" and leah "clearing, meadow," hence "stony meadow."

STEWART or STUART: English occupational surname, derived from Old English stigweard, composed of the elements stig "house" and weard "guard," meaning "house guard; steward."

SULLIVAN: Irish Anglicised form of Gaelic Ó Súilleabháin ("descendant of Súilleabhán"), hence "little dark eyes."

TALBOT: English surname, derived from the name Tolbert, possibly meaning "messenger of destruction."

TALEK: Cornish surname, derived from the word talawg, meaning "broad-browed" or "high-browed."

TALLACK: Variant spelling of the Cornish surname Talek, meaning "broad-browed" or "high-browed."

TANNER: English occupational surname, derived from the Middle English word tanner, possibly from a Celtic word for "oak," a wood used in tanning, hence "tanner of skins."

TATE: English surname meaning "cheerful."

TATUM: English surname meaning "Tate's homestead."

TAYLOR: English occupational surname meaning "cutter of cloth, tailor."

TEMPLE: English occupational surname, denoting someone who was employed at one of the houses called "temples," maintained by the Knights Templar.

TENNYSON: English patronymic surname, meaning "son of Tenney."

THORBURN: Scottish surname, derived from Old Norse Þorbiorn, meaning "Thor's bear."

THORLEY: English surname, composed of the Old English elements þorn "thorn bush" and leah "clearing, wood," hence "thorn clearing."

THORNTON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements þorn "thorn bush" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "thorn bush settlement."

THURSTON: English surname, derived from Old Norse Þorsteinn, meaning "Thor's stone."

TOBIN: English surname, derived from a pet form of Greek Tobias, meaning "God is good."

TODD: English surname, derived from a byname for a cunning person or someone with red hair, from Middle English todde, meaning "fox."

TRACY: English surname, derived from a Norman baronial name meaning "place of Thracius."

TRAFFORD: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements træppe "fish-trap" and ford "ford," hence "fish-trap ford."

TRANter: English occupational surname, derived from a name for a "peddler, hawker," who drove a wagon, derived from the Middle English word traunter, meaning "to convey."

TRAVERS: English occupational surname, derived from the Norman French word traverser, meaning "to cross," a name used for someone who was a "collector of bridge or road tolls."

TRAVIS: English occupational surname, derived from the Middle English word travis, meaning "crossing," a derivative of Old French traverser "to cross," a name used for someone who was a "collector of bridge or road tolls."

TREFOR or TREVOR: Welsh surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the elements tref "settlement" and for "large," hence "large settlement."

TRELAWNEY: Cornish surname

TRENT: English topographic surname meaning "lives on the river-bank."

TRENTON: English surname meaning "Trent's settlement."

TREVELYAN: Cornish surname derived from a place name meaning "settlement of Elian."

TREVITHICK: Cornish surname

TROY: English surname of French origin, meaning "from Troyes."

TRUMAN: English surname, composed of the Old English elements treowe "true, trustworthy" and mann "man," hence "true man."

TUCKER: English occupational surname, meaning "cloth fuller."

TYE: English surname, derived from the Middle English word tye, meaning "pasture."

TYLER: English occupational surname meaning "roof-tiler."

TYRRELL: English surname, possibly derived from a Norman byname for a "stubborn"

person.

TYSON: English surname, derived from a byname for a person who is "fiery tempered," from the Old French word tison, meaning "firebrand."

UPTON: English surname, composed of the Old English elements up "upper" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "upper settlement."

VANCE: English topographic surname, derived from the Old English word fenn "fen," hence "lives by a fen/marsh."

VAN DER AA (van der ä): Probably the same Aa as the name of various rivers in the Netherlands, derived from a common Teutonic word, meaning "river," hence "of the river."

VAN DER VELDE: Dutch surname given to a person residing "at the fields."

VAUGHAN: Welsh surname, derived from the personal name Vaughn, meaning "little."

VELÁZQUEZ: Spanish surname meaning "crow."

VERE: English surname, derived from a Norman baronial name meaning "alder."

VERNON: English surname, derived from a Norman French baronial name meaning "place of alder trees."

WADE: English topographical surname, meaning "lives near the river crossing."

WALKER: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English walkere from Old English wealcere ("to walk, tread"), hence "cloth fuller."

WALKYR: Scandinavian habitation surname meaning "from the wall by the marsh."

WALLACE: English surname, derived from an ethnic byname, from Old French waleis, meaning "foreigner, stranger," especially Celtic or Roman.

WALTON: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements wæll "spring" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "spring settlement."

WARD: English occupational surname, derived from Old English weard, meaning "guard, watchman."

WARE: English surname derived from the name of a market town in Hertfordshire, England, perhaps from Old English waer "to defend, to protect." Related to Weir.

WARNER: English surname, derived from the German personal name Werner, meaning "Warin warrior," i.e. "covered warrior."

WARREN: English surname of Norman French origin, derived from a place called La Varenne, meaning "game-park."

WARWICK: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements wær "dam" and wic "place, settlement," hence "settlement by the dam."

WASHINGTON: English surname, derived from the village of Washington in Co. Durham, named from Old English Wassingtun, meaning "Wassa's settlement."

WATSON: A northern English and Scottish patronymic surname "the son of Wat".

WAYNE: English occupational surname, meaning "cartwright; wagon-maker."

WEAVER: English occupational surname, derived from Middle English weven, meaning "to weave," hence "weaver." Also: English habitation surname, derived from the name of a place in Cheshire named after the river Weaver which got its name from Old English wefer, meaning "winding."

WEBSTER: English occupational surname, derived from early Middle English webber, meaning "weaver."

WEIMAN: Dutch surname meaning "hunter, huntsman." Also spelled Wyman or Wijman.

WEIR: English surname derived from the name of a market town in Hertfordshire, England, perhaps from Old English wear "a fence of stakes." Related to Ware.

WELDEN: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements weal "woody" and den "valley," hence "woody valley."

WELDON: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements wella "spring, stream" and dun "hill," hence "spring hill."

WELLER: Old English surname derived from the word wellere, meaning "gulf, hollow."

WELLS: Old English surname given to a person residing "at the wells."

WEMPEL: English surname having several possible derivations: 1) from Wampull, the name of a river in England, 2) from Wem, a town in England and Scotland, meaning "a cave, a hollow place," 3) from Wempool, meaning "the pool in the hollow or low place," or 4) from Wimpole, a place in London, meaning "a flag-staff."

WENDELL: Dutch surname derived from the word wandelaar ("a walker"), hence "traveler."

WENTWORTH: English surname meaning "farm on the river Worth."

WERDEN: German surname derived from Woerden, the name of a town in the Netherlands, composed of the elements wehr "fortification" and den "hill," hence "fort on the hill."

WESLEY: English habitation surname, derived from a contracted form of Westley, meaning "western meadow."

WESTALL: English surname meaning "west hall."

WESTERVELDT: Dutch surname composed of the elements wester "west" and veldt "field," hence "the west field."

WESTLEY: English habitation surname, derived from the name of various places called Westley, composed of the Old English elements west "west" and leah "meadow, pasture," hence "western meadow."

WESTMORELAND: English surname derived from the name of a county in England meaning "west moor land."

WESTON: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English elements west "west" and tun "enclosure, settlement," hence "western settlement."

WETHERBY: English surname, perhaps meaning "wide village."

WETHERSPOON: Variant spelling of the English surname Witherspoon, meaning "grazing place in the spur of a hill."

WHALLEY: English surname meaning "has greenish white eyes; wall-eyed."

WHEADEN: Old English surname derived from a byname for a "silly fellow."

WHEDEN: Variant spelling of the Old English surname Wheaden, meaning "silly fellow."

WHEALDEN: Cornish surname composed of the elements wheal "mine and dun/din "hill," hence "mine hill."

WHEATON: English surname derived from the name of place on the river Nen in England, meaning "white hill."

WHEELER: English occupational surname meaning "maker of wheels; wheeler."

WHIELDON: Variant spelling of the Cornish surname Whealden, meaning "mine hill."

WHITAKER: English habitation surname, derived from various place names composed of the Old English elements hwit "white" and æcer "cultivated land," hence "white acres."

WHITBY: English surname derived from the name of a town in Yorkshire, meaning either "white town" or "white bay."

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WHITE: English surname meaning "white." In some cases, it may derive from the Isle of Wight on the coast of Hampshire, so called from Welsh gwydd, meaning "wood," from its primitive forest.

WHITING: Old English surname meaning "white offspring."

WHITLOCK: Old English name meaning "white locks."

WHITFIELD: English surname meaning "white field."

WHITFORD: English surname meaning "white ford."

WHITMAN: Old English surname having several possible derivations: 1) from Dutch wight "weighty, ponderous," hence "stout man," 2) from Old English wight "lively, quick," hence "quick man," or 3) simply "white man."

WHITNEY: English habitation surname, derived from the name of various places derived from the Middle English phrase *atten whiten ey* ("by the white island"), hence "white island."

WHITTAKER: English surname composed of the elements *wite* "penalty" and *acre* "place of burial for criminals." William Arthur states "A culprit who could not discharge the penalty or wite became a *witetheow*," and was buried in the *wite-acre*." Etym. Dict. of Family and Christian Names, 1857.

WICKER: English surname derived from the word *wick* "place, settlement." Or, if of Danish origin, it may derive from *uakker*, meaning "brave, valiant."

WICKHAM: Old English surname composed of the elements *wic* "place, settlement" and *comb* "valley," hence "valley settlement."

WICKLIFF: Old English surname composed of the elements *hwic* "white" or *wic* "place, settlement," and *klif* "cliff," hence "settlement on the cliff" or "white cliff."

WIGAN: Old English surname derived from the name of a town on the river Douglass, Lancashire, England, perhaps from Germanic *wig*, "battle, fight."

WIGGIN: Variant spelling of the Old English surname *Wigan*, derived from the name of a town on the river Douglass, Lancashire, England, perhaps from Germanic *wig*, "battle, fight."

WILBER: English surname, composed of the Middle English elements *wild* "wild" and *bor* "boar," hence "wild boar."

WILBERFORCE: Old English surname meaning "wild boar foss (dike or ditch)."

WILBOR: Variant spelling of the English surname *Wilber*, meaning "wild boar."

WILBRAHAM: Old English surname derived from *Wilburgham* (*wild-burgh-ham*), the name of a town in Kent, England.

WILBURN: English habitation surname, probably from the name of a lost place composed of the Old English elements *wella* "well, spring" and *burn* "boiling, bubbling, running water," hence "bubbling stream" or perhaps "boiling spring."

WILCOX: English surname composed of the name *Will* and the diminutive suffix *-cock*, hence "little Will." The word *willcock* was also used as a byname for some "obstinate."

WILDA: German surname meaning "wild."

WILDER: Old English surname derived from the word *wealh*, meaning "traveler," or "of the forest/wilderness."

WILFORD: English habitation surname, composed of the name *Will* and the word *ford* "ford," hence "Will's river crossing."

WILKINS: English surname meaning "son of Will."

WILKINSON: English surname meaning "son of Wilkins."

WILLARD: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name *Wilheard*, meaning "strong-willed."

WILLET: English surname meaning "little Will."

WILLIAM: English surname derived from the personal name *William*, from Norman French *Willelm*, meaning "will-helmet." William Arthur derives the surname from Belgic *Guild-helm*, meaning "harnessed with a gilded helmet."

WILLIAMS: Contracted form of the English surname *Williamson*, meaning "son of William."

WILLIAMSON: English surname meaning "son of William."

WILLIS: English surname meaning "Willy's," i.e. "son of Willy."

WILLOUGHBY: English surname, composed of Old English *wilig* "willow" and Old Norse *býr* "settlement," hence "willow settlement."

WILMER: English surname, derived from the German personal name *Wilmar*, meaning "desires fame."

WILMOT: English surname which may be a corruption of the French surname *Guillemot*, from the personal name *Guillaume* (English *William*), meaning "will-helmet."

WILSON: English patronymic surname meaning "son of Will."

WILTON: English surname, derived from the name of various places composed of the Old English elements *wilig* "willow" and *tun* "enclosure, settlement," hence "willow settlement." Or, it may be so called from the river *Willey*, hence "town on the river Willey."

WILTSHIRE: English surname derived from the county name, composed of the elements *gwyllt* (Welsh) "desert, forest, wilderness" and *shire* "a division, a county."

WIMPLE: Dutch surname meaning "pendant, streamer."

WINCHCOMBE: Old English surname composed of the elements *wincel* "corner" and *comb* "valley," hence "cornered valley," i.e. a valley encompassed on each side with hills.

WINCHEL: Dutch surname derived from the word *winschaal*, meaning "wine-bowl" or "wine-shop."

WINCHESTER: English surname derived from the city name *Caerwynt*, composed of the Briton elements *caer* "city, town, fort" and *gwint* "wind," hence "windy city."

WINDHAM: English surname said to be a corruption of Old English *Wimund-han*, meaning "the home or village of Wimund."

WINDSOR: English surname, derived from a place name in Berkshire originally called *Windels-ora*, meaning "landing place with a windlass." [note: windlass. naut. a device used for winding ropes.] The Royal British family calls itself Windsor since 1917. Before that, the family name was *Saxe-Coburg-Gotha* after Queen Victoria's German husband Prince Albert of who was a descendent of this family that resides near Coburg in the middle of Germany.

WINEGAR: Anglicised form of the Dutch surname *Wyngaard*, meaning "a vine."

WINESHOP: Old English surname composed of the elements *win* "wine" and *sceapian* "to furnish, to make," hence "wine maker."

WINGFIELD: English surname derived from the name of the manor of *Wingfield*, in Suffolk, England.

WINNE: Contracted form of the Welsh surname *Gwynne*, meaning "white."

WINSHIP: Probably the same as the Old English surname *Wineshop*, meaning "wine maker."

WINSLOW: English habitation surname, composed of the Old English name *Wine* and the word *hlaw* "barrow, mound, hill," hence "Wine's hill."

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WINSTON: English surname, derived from the Anglo-Saxon personal name Wynnstan, meaning "joy-stone."
WINTERTON: English surname derived from the name of the town in the county of Norfolk, England, meaning "winter town."
WINTHROP: English habitational surname, derived from the name of various places called Winthorpe, composed of the Old English personal name Wine and Old Norse þorp and Old English "thorpe" "settlement, village," hence "Wine's village."
WISEMAN: English surname meaning "wise man."
WISHART: Later spelling of the Old English surname Guishart, meaning "wise heart."
WISWALL: English surname derived from Weisweil, the name of a city in Baden, on the Rhine, Germany.
WITHERINGTON: Contracted form of the Old English surname Wooderington, meaning "withered hill."
WITHERSPOON: Variant spelling of the Old English surname Wodderspoon, meaning "grazing place in the spur of a hill."
WITTER: Dutch and Low German occupational surname meaning "bleacher, whitener."
WODDERSPOON: Old English habitational surname meaning "grazing place in the spur of a hill."
WOLSEY: Old English surname composed of the elements wold "lawn, wood" and ley "meadow," hence "woody meadows." Also spelled Woolsey.
WOOD: Ancient Scottish surname meaning simply "wood."
WOODERINGTON: Old English surname composed of the elements wyderian "to wither" and dun "hill," hence "withered hill."
WOODROW: English habitational surname, composed of the Old English elements wudu "wood" and raw "line, row," hence "lives in a row of houses by the wood."
WOODRUFF: Old English surname derived from the occupational term wood-reeve, meaning "governor or keeper of a wood."
WOODWARD: Old English surname meaning "wood ward," one who walked with a forest-bill, and took cognizance of all offenses committed.
WOOL: English surname meaning "has short, thick hair."
WOOLLEY: English surname composed of the elements wold "lawn, wood" and ley "meadow," hence "woody meadow."
WOOLSEY: Variant spelling of the Old English surname Wolsey, meaning "woody meadows."
WOOSTER: From a corrupted form of the Old English surname Worcester, meaning "fort of strife" or "war camp."
WORCESTER: Old English surname derived from Warcester, the city of strife, composed of the elements woer "war, strife" and cester "camp, city" hence "fort of strife" or "war camp."
WORTH: Old English habitational surname meaning "place of value."
WRIGHT: English occupational surname, derived from Old English wryhta/wyrhta, meaning "craftsman."
WYATT: English surname, derived from the medieval personal name Wyot, meaning "hardy warrior."
WYLIE: English surname having two possible derivations, 1) from the vocabulary word wily, meaning "artful, sly," or 2) from the Irish and Scottish personal name Wylie, a form of Willy,

meaning "will-helmet."
WYMAN: Variant form of the Dutch surname Weiman, meaning "hunter, huntsman."
WYNGAARD: Dutch surname meaning "a vine."
WYNNE: English surname, derived from the Old English personal name Wine, meaning "friend."
XAVIER: Basque surname, derived from the place name Etcheberria, meaning "a new house."
YAGER: Variant form of the Dutch / German / Danish surname Jager, meaning "huntsman."
YALE: Welsh habitational surname, derived from the word iâl, meaning "arable/fertile upland."
YARE: Old English surname meaning "eager, ready."
YARROW: English surname derived from the plant name, meaning "plant of a thousand leaves; yarrow."
YATES: English surname derived from an old word for "a gate."
YEOMAN: English surname meaning "free-man," a free-born man, a freeholder, one next in order to the gentry.
YETT: Variant form of English Yates, meaning "a gate."
YORK: English surname derived from the city name, itself from eue-ric or eouer-ric, composed of the elements euere "wild boar" and ryc "refuge," hence "retreat from wild boars," which were in the forest of Gautries.
YOUNGLOVE: English surname said to have been originally given on account of his age and tender affection.
YULE: Old English surname derived from the name of the festival, the time of nativity, from Greek "Υλε, meaning "forest, wood."

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

For more than ten years I met countless students and colleagues in China. Before I went to China, I was not sure how I would be received by you. Since then, I have experienced that Chinese people are warm-hearted, honest, determined, and admirable. This book became possible by your contributions. It is therefore my honour to herewith address all my students and all people who supported me. I am much obliged to express my sincere gratitude to you all. Thank you!

在过去的十年里，我遇见了无数的学生们和同事们，
在来中国之前，我不太确定我会有怎样的际遇。
我在这里感受到了中国人的热心善良，诚实，坚定的决心，
和全然的敬重。这本书里会有你的贡献。致此我倍感荣幸，
由衷的感谢我的学生们，身边曾经帮助过我的人们。
祝愿我们的友谊长存，和平，繁荣。
感谢所有的一切，好运，朋友们！

Lord Henfield, 2018.

DETAILS AND ATTRIBUTES:

Author: Lord Henfield

Publisher: Guildford Scientific Press: GSP.UK@protonmail.com

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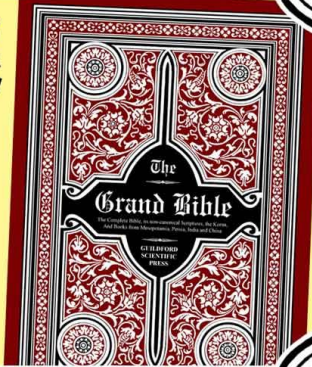
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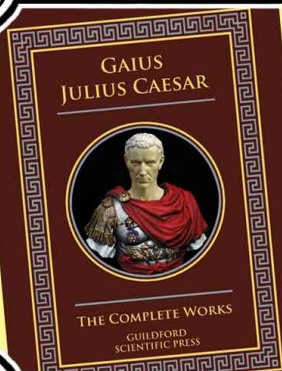
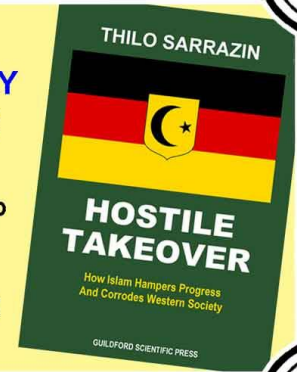
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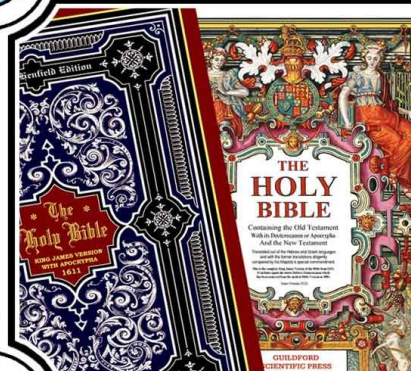
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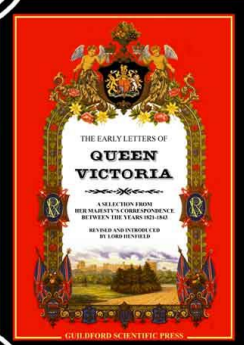
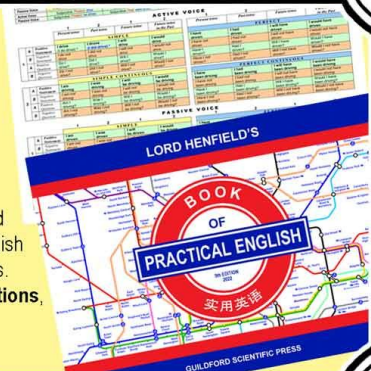
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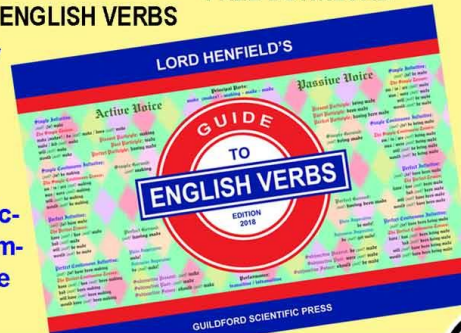
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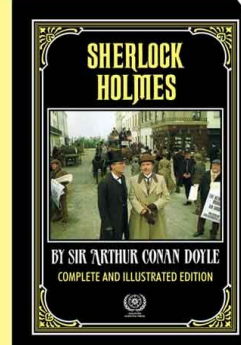
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